DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 280 281 FL 016 542

TITLE	Handbook for Teaching Pilipino-Speaking Students.
INSTITUTION	California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Bilingual Education Office.
PUB DATE	86
NOTE	97p.
AVAILABLE FROM	California State Department of Education, Publication Sales, P.O. Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95802-0271 ($4.50).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Bilingual Education; Classroom Techniques; Comparative Analysis; Contrastive Linguistics; *Cultural Background; Curriculum Design; Demography; Directories; Educational Objectives; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Foreign Countries; Instructional Materials; Language Skills; *Limited English Speaking; *Native Language Instruction; Parent Attitudes; Program Development; Reading Instruction; Second Language Instruction; Sociocultural Patterns; *Tagalog; Teaching Guides; Teaching Methods; Uncommonly Taught Languages
IDENTIFIERS	*California; *Philippines

ABSTRACT

A handbook for teachers and administrators dealing with limited-English-speaking native Pilipino-speaking students in the schools gives information on the unique historical, sociocultural, and linguistic characteristics of this group and provides information about educational resources. It begins with an overview of Filipino immigration history, distribution in the United States, educational background, schooling problems, and parental attitudes. The second chapter looks at historical and sociocultural factors affecting Filipinos in the Philippines and in California. Chapter 3 outlines characteristics of the Pilipino language, including language distribution in the Philippines, features of Philippine languages, the controversy over a native language in the Philippines, the implications for language instruction in the United States, differences between Pilipino and English, characteristics of written Pilipino, and notes on the interrelationship of language and culture. The fourth chapter suggests instructional and curriculum strategies for Pilipino language development, including methods for teaching reading and writing in Pilipino, oral English instruction, bilingual reading instruction, criteria for introduction of English reading, and comments on exposure to English and Pilipino. A glossary, reference list, resource directories, and sample materials and objectives for writing in Pilipino are appended. (MSE)

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Handbook for Teaching Pilipino-Speaking Students

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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Bill Honig—Superintendent of Public Instruction
Sacramento, 1986

Handbook for Teaching Pilipino-Speaking Students

Developed by the
Bilingual Education Office
California State Department of Education

Publishing Information

This handbook was funded in part with funds from the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs and the Office of Equal Educational Opportunity Programs, U.S. Department of Education. The opinions expressed herein do not, however, necessarily reflect the position or policy of the U.S. Department of Education, and no official endorsement by the U.S. Department of Education should be inferred. The document was developed by the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education. The final draft of the manuscript was edited by staff members of the Bureau of Publications, working in cooperation with David P. Dolson, Consultant, Bilingual Education Office. The handbook was prepared for photo-offset production by the staff of the Bureau of Publications, with artwork by Cheryl Shawver McDonald. The document was published by the Department; printed by the Office of State Printing; and distributed under the provisions of the Library Distribution Act and *Government Code* Section 11096.

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A list of other publications available from the Department of Education is shown on page 83.

Contents

Page

Foreword v
Preface vi
Acknowledgments ix
Note to Readers xi

Chapter I. Overview of Pilipino-Speaking People 1

History of Filipino Immigration 1
Location of Filipino Residents in the U.S. 2
Reasons for Filipino Immigration 3
Educational Background of Filipinos 5
Schooling Problems Among Filipinos 6
Attitudes of Filipino Parents 9
Summary of the Chapter 9

Chapter II. Historical and Sociocultural Factors Concerning Pilipino-Speaking People 11

Factors in the Philippines 11
Factors in California 15
Summary of the Chapter 16

Chapter III. Linguistic Characteristics of the Pilipino Language 17

Distribution of Languages in the Philippines 17
Features of Philippine Languages 18
Controversy Over a National Language 20
Implications for Language Instruction in the U.S. 21
Differences Between Pilipino and English 22
Characteristics of Pilipino Written Language 30
Interrelationship Between Language and Culture 31
Summary of the Chapter 36

Chapter IV. Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Pilipino Language Development 39

Methods for Teaching Reading in Pilipino 39
Methods for Teaching Writing in Pilipino 41
Introduction of Oral English Instruction 42
Bilingual Reading Instruction 47
Criteria for Introduction of Reading in English 48

Page

Exposure to Pilipino and English 51
Summary of the Chapter 55

Glossary 57
Bibliography 60
Selected References 60
Suggested Readings 65

Appendix A. Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Pilipino 67
Appendix B. Educational Resources 69
Appendix C. Community Organizations and Media Services 71
Appendix D. Filipino Bilingual Education Programs in California, 1984 73
Appendix E. Pilipino Reading Lesson 74
Appendix F. ABAKADA Handwriting Exercises 75
Appendix G. Sample Objectives for Writing in Pilipino 77
Appendix H. Sample Pages from a Kartilya Book 80

List of Tables, Figures, and Maps

Table

1 Filipino Immigration into the U.S., 1971—1981 4
2 Highest Educational Attainment for Filipinos Who Are Neither Students nor Children Too Young to Go to School, by Place of Birth 6
3 Native Speakers of the Eight Major Languages of the Philippines 18
4 English and Pilipino Sounds Compared 24
5 A Continuum of Writing Skills in Pilipino, Kindergarten Through Grade Six 43

Figure

1 Abakada (Pilipino Alphabet) 30

Map

1 Location of Philippine Language Groups 19

Foreword

During the 1983-84 school year, 33,907 students in California were reported to be using Pilipino as their primary home language. Approximately 10,941 of these students were identified as limited English proficient (LEP). This publication, *A Handbook for Teaching Pilipino-Speaking Students*, was developed to help educators provide the best educational opportunities for Pilipino-speaking students.

What is especially important is that teachers and administrators have adequate knowledge of Filipino students' language and cultural background. This knowledge, research has shown, has a significant influence on the scholastic performance of language minority students. With the information provided in this handbook, school district personnel should be able to design and implement effective instructional programs that address the specific needs of Pilipino-speaking students.

Included in the handbook is information on the unique historical, sociocultural, and linguistic characteristics of Pilipino-speaking students. The handbook also provides information about educational resources, such as community organizations, public agencies, and classroom instructional materials. We in the Department are pleased to be involved in the development of this handbook. We believe that it and handbooks for other language groups will make an important contribution to the improvement of educational services for language minority students.

Bill Honig

Superintendent of Public Instruction

Preface

This handbook was developed as part of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project in the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education. The project was designed to assist school districts in providing effective bilingual education services to language minority students, and the Project Team identified as its first major activity the development of handbooks for a number of Asian and minority language groups.

The purpose of the handbooks is to assist school personnel in understanding selected Asian and minority language groups. The handbooks have been designed for use by bilingual education specialists as well as administrators and teachers who have more general responsibilities for the education of language minority students.

Chapters I and II of this handbook address general background factors regarding the Pilipino-speaking language group: immigration history, educational background, and sociocultural factors. Chapters III and IV contain specific information regarding the Pilipino language and appropriate program offerings that will promote the academic achievement of Pilipino-speaking students.

This handbook is complemented by another publication developed by the Bilingual Education Office: *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*,[1] which provides extensive information regarding bilingual education theory and practice. It also outlines the basic principles underlying successful bilingual education programs and suggests a variety of implementation strategies.

The analyses and illustrations in the *Theoretical Framework* are not specific to particular language groups. Rather, the *Theoretical Framework* provides a way of conceptualizing and organizing appropriate program services based on program goals, available resources, community background factors, and student characteristics.

This handbook and others developed as part of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project are designed to assist school district personnel in better understanding specific Asian and minority language group communities and individual students who come from

[1]Information regarding this publication is available from the Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

those communities.[2] We believe that by using this handbook in conjunction with the *Theoretical Framework*, school personnel should be able to develop program services that are appropriately suited to the needs of individual Pilipino-speaking students and that are consistent with California's bilingual education law.

During the past three years, California has experienced a dramatic increase in the number of immigrants from Asia and other parts of the world. For example, the 1983 language census indicated that Vietnamese students who are of limited English proficiency (LEP) increased from 7,219 in 1979 to 15,870 in 1983, a 120 percent increase. On the basis of the 1983 language census, LEP students from Asian and other minority language groups (excluding Spanish-speaking students) totaled approximately 120,000 or 26 percent of the 457,542 LEP students identified in California. Pilipino-speaking students made up the fourth largest group of limited-English-proficient students in California.

The Asian and Minority Language Group Project Team of the Bilingual Education Office began development of this handbook in January, 1980. It went through several drafts and was reviewed by teachers, linguists, and members of the language group community before publication. Every effort has been made to create a handbook that would be useful to educators who are responsible for the education of Asian and minority groups.

An ad hoc committee representing 13 different language groups identified five key areas where information would be useful to school districts. Each of the handbooks addresses these areas. The first two chapters of the handbook are designed to provide a general understanding of the social and educational background of the language group and of its history of immigration to the United States. The final two chapters on linguistics and program development are designed for bilingual educators who are developing appropriate curriculum and instruction for language minority students. The appendixes provide a variety of available resources for the education of students of the language group.

In spite of extensive work done by many individuals on this handbook, it should be regarded as a first edition. As time and resources permit, efforts will be made to refine it. It is difficult in one volume to depict the uniqueness and heterogeneity that characterize the language group. The reader should recognize that any language group is complex and diverse, with individual members and generations hav-

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[2]Handbooks on Vietnamese-speaking and Korean-speaking students are available from the Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

ing a variety of needs and characteristics based on different experiences in America and in their native countries.

This handbook has been developed in coordination with several other documents published by the Bilingual Education Office. As already stated, the research and evaluation information presented in the *Theoretical Framework* forms the basis for the theoretical and philosophical as well as the pedagogical positions taken in the Asian and minority language handbooks.

This handbook represents an initial attempt to describe generally the needs and characteristics of the language minority groups. Much more research and developmental work needs to be done by all who are responsible for ensuring the successful adaptation to America by minority language groups.

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Acknowledgments

The California State Department of Education wishes to recognize the many individuals who assisted in completing this handbook. The facilitator, Josefina A. Pulido, Bilingual Education Service Center, Oakland, worked closely with the project team in keeping the handbook on schedule and in making revisions to the drafts. The language group representatives—Rosita G. Galang, University of San Francisco, and Estela G. Pinga, Stockton City Unified School District—wrote sections of the handbook and did needed research. Teresita V. Ramos, University of Hawaii at Manoa, who served as both language specialist and content reviewer, played an important role in ensuring the accuracy and completeness of the handbook. Space does not permit listing the many interested members of the language group community and the wider public who made invaluable suggestions for improving each draft.

We also recognize the Asian and Minority Language Group Project Team, Bilingual Education Office—David P. Dolson, Chong K. Park, and Van Le—who saw the need for the handbooks, organized an effective mechanism for developing them, and provided guidance during the writing of each draft. The project was managed by Guillermo Lopez, former Chief, Bilingual Education Office. The high expectations and perseverance of members of the team were critical to the completion of the handbooks. The team in particular recognizes David P. Dolson, who coordinated the development of this handbook.

The Department acknowledges the following specialists who assisted the teams at the beginning of the project in May, 1980: Eleanor W. Thonis, Wheatland Elementary School District; Benjamin K. T'sou, University of Hong Kong; and Lily Wong-Filmore, University of California, Berkeley.

We also want to thank Mary G. McDonald, former Director of the BABEL LAU Center in Oakland, and Alberto M. Ochoa, Director of the NOD-LAU Center in San Diego, for their support in the initial development of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project and in the provision of staff assistance to selected teams.

The Department is also grateful to Mary Spencer, Americas Behavioral Research Corporation, San Francisco, and to Barbara Merino,

University of California, Davis, for their untiring efforts in working on the final draft.

Although many individuals contributed to each handbook, final responsibility rests with the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education.

DANIEL D. HOLT
Asian and Minority Language Group Project Team Leader

Note to Readers

This handbook is designed for use by administrators, teachers, and other instructional personnel. The contents of the handbook may help the user in many different ways.

Chapter I. Overview of the Pilipino-speaking People

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Develop effective curricular and instructional approaches by understanding how educators in the native country deal with literacy and language arts.
2. Improve English instruction by understanding what contact, if any, students have had with English in the native country.
3. Promote Pilipino language development by knowing how the Pilipino language is reinforced in the home and community in California.
4. Improve Pilipino language instruction in the United States by knowing how the Pilipino language is taught in the native country.

Chapter II. Historical and Sociocultural Factors Concerning Pilipino-speaking People

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Develop effective curricular and instructional approaches by understanding how educators in the native country deal with literacy and language arts.
2. Improve English instruction by understanding what contact, if any students have had with English in the native country.
3. Promote Pilipino language development by knowing how the Pilipino language is reinforced in the home and community in California.
4. Improve academic performance by understanding the role of the Pilipino language in formal schooling contexts.

Chapter III. Linguistic Characteristics of the Pilipino Language

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Create Pilipino language development activities by knowing more about the linguistic aspects of the language.

2. Improve English language instruction by understanding some of the similarities and differences between English and the Pilipino language.

Chapter IV. Recommended Instruction and Curricular Strategies for Pilipino Language Development

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Improve Pilipino language and English instruction by better understanding the theoretical bases for bilingual instruction.
2. Improve Pilipino language and English instruction by realizing how to manage the student's contact in the United States with both languages in the school and community.
3. Improve academic performance by understanding the role of the Pilipino language in formal schooling contexts.

Glossary, Bibliography, and Appendixes

The material in the glossary, bibliography, and appendixes should help the school staff to:

1. Select materials necessary for language arts and other curricular areas.
2. Develop constructive relationships with community organizations and media services related to curriculum and instruction.
3. Create liaison with other districts in California by knowing where students of the Pilipino language group are concentrated.
4. Use terms that are associated with the Pilipino language group and educational services to support it.

Chapter I

Overview of the Pilipino-Speaking People

History of Filipino Immigration

Filipino immigration into the United States started shortly after the onset of American rule in the Philippines in 1898. The Filipinos came to the United States in three general waves:

1903—1941: Pensionados

The first wave, which began in 1903 and lasted until the outbreak of World War II, brought many young men who came in search of a university or college education but who planned to return to the Philippines (Melendy, 1977). This first group consisted primarily of students called *pensionados*; that is, students supported by the Philippine government and institutions or by their parents, relatives, or friends. These student *pensionados*, a highly select group, gained the reputation of being serious scholars. In later years student *pensionados* included men and women who had been employed by the government for a number of years but who were chosen for their exceptional abilities and interests in certain fields of study.

The achievements of the returning *pensionados* encouraged other students to come to the United States. Between the mid-1920s and mid-1930s, three different types of Filipino students were enrolled in American colleges and universities: government *pensionados* (10 percent); students who were partially self-supporting (3 percent); and students who were completely self-supporting (87 percent) (Obando, 1936). From 1910 to 1938 almost 14,000 Filipinos enrolled in a variety of educational institutions in the United States. During the formative years of the Philippine Commonwealth, these American-trained students played important roles in agriculture, business, education, engineering, and government as their education enabled them to be in positions of leadership and authority (Melendy, 1977).

1906—1930s: Agricultural Workers

The second wave of immigration lasted from 1906 to the 1930s as Filipinos went to Hawaii to work. During this period laborers for the Hawaiian pineapple and sugar cane plantations were very much in demand, and recruiters for Hawaiian plantations went to Manila and

the provinces of the Philippines to look for workers. Given offers of good wages and free transportation, many Filipinos went to Hawaii (Vallangca, 1977).

Most of the recruited laborers were in their twenties and thirties. They were generally older than the Filipino students who came to the mainland of the United States, spoke less English, and had little formal education. Some of them, however, hoped eventually to move to the mainland to obtain an education, believing that working on a plantation was a stepping-stone to that end. After a few years of working and saving part of their earnings, many Filipinos did move to the mainland. Their experience as plantation workers in Hawaii enabled them to find jobs on farms in the Pacific Coast states (Vallangca, 1977).

The large-scale emigration of agricultural workers from the Philippines to the mainland coincided with their emigration to Hawaii. The mainland movement started early in 1920 and continued until 1934, when the combined effects of the Great Depression and the Tydings-McDuffie Act brought emigration from the Philippines to a virtual halt (Melendy, 1977). The Tydings-McDuffie Act of July 11, 1934, paved the way for the establishment of the Philippine Commonwealth in November, 1935—the fruition of the long and hard struggle of the Filipino people for independence. Under the provisions of this Act, the Philippines was to become independent in 1944. The Act also settled the matter of entry of Filipinos to the United States. The Philippines from then on was to be considered a separate country and was limited to an immigration quota of 50 persons per year (Coloma, 1939).

1965—Present: Increased Numbers

The third and current wave of immigration began in 1965. Between 1965 and 1974 Filipino immigration increased 949.7 percent as 210,269 immigrants entered the United States. The 1965 Immigration Act completely changed Filipino immigration patterns. Both men and women entered the United States, many of them well-educated members of families with large numbers of school-age children and senior citizens (Melendy, 1977).

Location of Filipino Residents in the U.S.

In California the earliest official record regarding Filipinos is that of the California census of 1910, which showed that there were five Filipino residents (Wallovits, 1966). Ten years later the number had increased to 2,647, and in 1929—the year of the greatest number of labor arrivals—5,795 were admitted.

The types of immigrants who made up the heavy influx into California represented three distinct groups, of whom by far the largest was that of laborers recruited for agricultural work (Bloch, 1930). In 1923 and 1924 a shortage of labor occurred in California that caused agriculturists to look to the Hawaiian plantations for workers to help on the farms. With the promise of higher wages, there was a substantial flow of Filipino laborers from Hawaii to California (Coloma, 1939). Most of these workers worked in the northern and central agricultural areas of California, although many were scattered throughout other areas of the state. Stockton was one of the largest centers of the Filipino agricultural labor population, and San Francisco, Los Angeles, San Bernardino, and important agricultural centers such as the Salinas Valley and San Joaquin Valley areas constituted the other centers of the labor population (Wallovits, 1966). A second but small group of Filipino immigrants to California was that of government *pensionados;* and a third, also small, group consisted of self-supporting students, of whom Los Angeles received the greatest number (Coloma, 1939).

More than two-thirds of the Filipinos in the U.S. live on the West Coast. Forty percent live in California, and 28 percent live in Hawaii. A majority of the older Filipinos who immigrated earlier in the century and their descendants also live in these two states. The more recent immigrants are found in concentrations in urban areas throughout the United States, particularly in the urban areas of California. Thirty-eight percent of the 1974 immigrants settled in the urban centers of California—23 percent in San Francisco, 19 percent in Los Angeles, and 8 percent in San Diego (U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1974).

Immigration patterns from the Philippines for 1977 through 1981 are displayed in Table 1.

Data show that 96 percent of the Filipinos living in the United States were born outside the United States or in the United States but of foreign parents. Sixty-four percent of that group, about 285,000 persons, speak Pilipino as their mother tongue (Office of Special Concerns, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974). And if 40 percent of all Filipinos live in California, about 114,000 Filipinos in California would be speakers of Pilipino as their mother tongue. Most live in urban areas; in fact, only 7 percent of Filipinos in California live in rural areas (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974).

Reasons for Filipino Immigration

Most immigrants come to the United States for such reasons as political liberty, economic betterment, religious freedom, social

equality, and freedom from population pressures. These incentives also apply in the case of the Filipinos. Filipinos immigrated because of (1) promises of economic betterment through labor recruitment programs and education; (2) the lure of new experiences due in large part to American education and social stimuli in the Philippines; and (3) personal desires for independence and the prestige of self-support, particularly in the case of students.

In California the major factor in Filipino immigration was labor recruitment. The responsibility for the recruitment of large numbers of Filipinos was ascribed to the (1) various agricultural employers who desired to keep down their labor costs and increase their profits through the paying of substandard wages to foreigners; and (2) certain steamship companies that were determined to increase the number of passengers for profit. These groups advertised through lectures and moving pictures the "glorious adventure" and "beautiful opportunities" available in the United States and made exaggerated promises. Thousands of laborers signed contracts for work in response to these attractions (Lasker, 1969).

Immigration was also encouraged by American influence in the Philippines, especially through American education. American textbooks portrayed America as a "land of opportunity, equality, liberty, wealth, and prosperity." The teaching of patriotism took the form of extolling everything that made for the progress of the Philippines

Table 1

Filipino Immigration into the U.S., 1971—1981

Year	*Number of immigrants*
1971	28,471
1972	29,376
1973	30,799
1974	32,857
1975	31,751
1976	37,281
1977	48,849
1978	37,216
1979	41,300
1980	42,316
1981	43,772
Total	**403,988**

Source: 1980 Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, U.S. Dept. of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, Washington, D.C., 1980, p. 34.

along the American model. The schools also motivated the Filipino students to vocational aspirations that were not achievable under the economic circumstances in the Philippines, thus creating the desire among many to emigrate for more education or for better economic opportunities. The influence of the American press and media was also great (Lasker, 1969).

Many economic factors in the Philippines also encouraged Filipino emigration. Some of the most significant of these were chronic unemployment in the large urban centers, the lack of opportunities and incentives for agricultural workers, and forced idleness during off-seasons. In addition, letters from relatives in Hawaii claiming that there were high wages to be earned, that the working conditions were good, and that there was an abundance of work, plus the thousands of pesos in money orders exchanged in the post offices, lured Filipinos to Hawaii. Another incentive was the desire to learn American methods of agricultural production for the purpose of applying them in the Philippines (Lasker, 1969).

Educational Background of Filipinos

The desire for education has characterized Filipinos throughout the country's recorded history because formal education has been viewed as a means of upward social mobility. Parents will, therefore, make great sacrifices to help their children pursue their studies.

Youths in the Philippines are characterized as ambitious, wanting to grow educationally and socially. They want to become prominent members of their community. Despite economic handicaps, they aspire to graduation from college. In terms of the ratio of college and university enrollment to total population, the Philippines ranks second highest in the world—second only to the United States (United States Operations Mission to the Philippines, 1966). The figures from the United States census of 1970 tend to reflect this fact:

> Nationally, the percentage of Filipino men who have completed college (15 percent) is slightly above the U.S. average for men (13 percent) despite the large number of older uneducated males in the population. This results from the impact of the large number of educated Filipino male professionals who have immigrated to the United States. . . .
>
> Of the Filipino women, 64 percent have completed high school—one of the highest rates of women in any subgroup and far higher than the 49 percent of Filipino males who have completed high school. The proportion of Filipino women with a college education (27 percent) is the highest for any population group, male or female . . . (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1974).

This finding is also reflected in the recent study of Filipinos in Mountain View, California (Beebe, 1978). (See Table 2.) The data

Table 2

Highest Educational Attainment for Filipinos Who Are Neither Students Nor Children Too Young to Go to School, by Place of Birth

	Place of birth					
	Philippines		*United States*		*Total*	
Educational attainment	*Number*	*Percent**	*Number*	*Percent**	*Number*	*Percent**
Less than elementary	105	11	4	7	109	11
Elementary	133	15	7	12	140	14
High school	316	35	32	56	348	36
Associate or Elementary Teacher's Certificate (ETC)	53	6	3	5	56	6
Four-year college	282	31	11	19	293	30
Master's degree	16	2	0	0	16	2
Professionals—law, medicine, and so on	8	1	0	0	8	1
Total	**913**	**100**	**57**	**100**	**970**	**100**

(Source: Beebe, 1978)
*Percents rounded to nearest whole number; totals may not equal 100.

contained in Table 2 are probably representative for Filipinos throughout California.

The study shows that the college degrees most commonly earned by Filipinos in Mountain View were in professional education—bachelor of arts in education, 74; and master of arts in education, 6. Education majors constituted 24 percent of the 382 individuals who attained postsecondary degrees (Beebe, 1978). In addition, 11 persons earned elementary teaching certificates.

Schooling Problems Among Filipinos

The relative importance of education as seen by Filipinos in the United States may be deduced from the following:

> Despite the high percentage of educated Filipinos who have already completed college, younger Filipinos are not enrolled in school today at a rate that is adequate to continue this high educational achievement.
>
> The enrollment rates of college-aged Filipinos nineteen to twenty-four years old is below U.S. averages. Only 28 percent of Filipino males and 23 percent of Filipino females in that age group are in school, while the U.S. total rates are over 37 percent and 27 percent, respectively, for males and

females. Young Filipinos, many of whom are second or third generation, are not getting as much advanced education as the rest of the country.

The rate of Filipino three- to four-year-old enrollment in school (15 percent) is about the U.S. level and is much lower than for the other two Asian subgroups. Yet, the labor force participation rate of Filipino women is higher than for any other female population group, suggesting that Filipino three- to four-year-olds need more preschool enrollment opportunities (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1974).

Although there are several contributing factors that keep Filipino young people, many of whom are second and third generation, from getting advanced education, it seems reasonable to speculate that one of these factors may be language.

The obstacles that Filipino children face to get a good education are many. Faith in education is often not matched by the country's capability to provide quality education. The period of schooling for Filipino children is brief—six years in the elementary grades and four in the secondary. National evaluations have indicated alarmingly low achievement levels, which may be attributed to such factors as large classes, lack of instructional materials, crowded classrooms, ineffective teaching methods, and low per pupil expenditure. Studies on dropouts or failures in school that are based on student surveys indicate the causes as (1) poverty, which results in irregular attendance, unavailability of textbooks, references, and outside reading materials, and too much work at home; (2) poor study habits, which include irregular study at home and not taking notes; and (3) difficulties arising from the use of English as the medium of instruction and consequent inability of students to comprehend the meaning of words and sentences and to locate sources of information in books and magazines. It should be pointed out that, on the average, students in the Philippines study more subjects per year at all levels of education than similar students in the United States do, but that 40 percent of their time both at the elementary and secondary levels is devoted to some type of language instruction (including vernacular languages, Pilipino, English, and Spanish). As a result the time that can be devoted to other academic courses is greatly reduced (Wilcox, 1966).

Awareness of school factors in the Philippines may help teachers understand the study habits and learning behaviors that Filipino immigrants bring with them to the American classroom. Social and cultural variables that may affect Filipino children's behavior in American schools include the following:

1. The lecture method is the instructional approach to which most Filipino pupils would have been almost exclusively exposed. Teachers do not always have a completely free choice of instruc-

tional methods to use. Their choices often are determined by the constraints under which they operate, such as availability of instructional and learning materials, school policies (such as those governing testing), classroom space, and transportation facilities. Thus, where instructional materials—textbooks, references, and other resources—are meager, the lecture method would probably be the most frequent choice. The lack of up-to-date reading materials for both teachers and students limits exposure to varying points of view. This situation limits opportunities to develop skills in the use of a variety of references and other resource materials for independent study. The discussions that take place in the classroom are likely to be narrowed down to verifying facts related to previous lectures. Testing would likely focus on the retention of facts and information, leading to much memorization. This kind of procedure makes individual teachers the sole authority because only they have access to the sources of information.

2. Many conditions in Philippine homes and schools tend to make the Filipino child more passive than active in the American connotation of the words.
   a. It was not until 1974 that a bilingual education policy was implemented in Philippine schools. Children, therefore, especially during the first years of school, hardly ever enjoyed the spontaneity of expression associated with using one's native tongue. Many children probably had to contain their curiosity and their creative and exciting ideas because they were unable to express themselves in a new language. This kind of self-restraint could have become habitual and deeply ingrained in many children so that they have become reluctant to speak in a public setting.
   b. Filipino children are not generally encouraged to be talkative. Rather, they are encouraged to be polite and good listeners. Children are highly commended when they are quiet and get high scores in written tests or present good written work. Pupils are conditioned to raise their hands to recite only when they are sure their answers are right so as not to be chided by both teacher and classmates.
   c. Children at home may be commended for self-improvement but not for overt competition. Aggressiveness is generally discouraged.
   d. Classes in Philippine schools are commonly large, and the classrooms are generally small. Some degree of regimentation is imposed. Little tolerance is felt for a child's attempt to challenge parents at home or teachers at school.

3. Filipino schoolchildren are generally nurtured in a structured setting. Newly arrived immigrant children might function better in a structured learning situation, at least initially. Such students often wait to be told what to do and how to do it but usually try to do whatever is requested by the teacher.

Attitudes of Filipino Parents

Although Filipino parents are highly supportive of their children's schooling, they often take the attitude that as far as their children's activities and welfare in school are concerned, the teacher knows best. Parents need not become involved in school matters. Filipino parents feel embarrassed when told of their children's poor showing in school; they tend to feel that the child's shortcomings reflect on the parents. Therefore, often they avoid any kind of confrontation with the teacher if they think that their children are not doing well in their schoolwork. They generally attend school events, however, when their children participate in school programs or community activities and are usually cooperative when given specific tasks to do or when asked to give donations or contributions to support school activities.

Chapter Summary

The latest census figures indicate that Filipinos constitute the largest Asian group and the second largest national origin group to immigrate to the United States. Over two-thirds of all Filipino immigrants to the United States have settled in California. It is estimated that over 60 percent of Filipino immigrants speak Pilipino as their mother tongue.

In the past, first-generation Filipino immigrants came to the United States with good educational backgrounds. Consequently, such immigrants were able to take advantage of additional educational opportunities found in America. But second- and third-generation Filipinos have been less fortunate. Some educators speculate that, because these students have difficulties in identifying positively with both the minority and majority cultures, school achievement has been affected negatively.

As with all immigrant groups, Filipino children face many problems of adjustment when they enter American schools. Psychosocial, economic, cultural, and language problems present serious obstacles to normal school achievement for these children. When the school does not provide an educationally supportive environment in terms of qualified staff, appropriate materials, and educationally sound instructional approaches, the problems of Filipino language minority students are compounded.

Although Filipino parents, like many parents, are very concerned about the education of their children, they tend to leave major educational decisions to teachers and school administrators. The reason is that many Filipinos view school personnel as important authority figures. To some teachers this behavior may be interpreted as a passive and indifferent attitude towards education in general and towards the school in particular. However, Filipino parents, once they have an understanding of the importance of parent involvement in the school and once they know how to become involved, are as likely as any group to participate fully in school activities. School personnel need to explore ways which encourage Filipino parents to develop a close relationship with the school.

In later sections of the handbook, strategies for designing and implementing instructional programs for Pilipino-speaking students will be discussed in detail. In addition, suggestions will be given to promote parent and community involvement in school-related activities effectively and efficiently.

Chapter II

Historical and Sociocultural Factors Concerning Pilipino-Speaking People

Factors in the Philippines

The establishment of a public school system was perhaps the most outstanding contribution that the United States made during its 50 years of occupation of the Philippines. The impact of formal education has been tremendous. The increase in the number and variety of schools has been extremely rapid and has brought education to a large segment of the population. The national literacy campaign is a continuing project of the Department of Education and Culture, reflecting the nation's high regard for literacy. Today, the Philippines has one of the highest per capita rates of college and university education in Asia and perhaps the largest number of professionals (Borlaza, 1970).

Language Policy in Filipino Schools

The history of school language policy in the Philippines has been beset by perplexing problems and conflicting viewpoints. For a long time the debate focused on which language should be used exclusively as the instructional medium (Pilipino or English) and for which grade levels.[1] English was used as the sole medium of instruction from the first grade upward since the establishment of the public school system in 1901. In 1957 the vernacular (Pilipino) was established as the medium in the first two grades and English from the third grade on. New directions derived from many years of research activity, debates, and conferences culminated in the decision made by the Philippine Department of Education and Culture in 1974 to use both English and Pilipino as instructional media in a partial form of bilingual education to be implemented progressively in all grades. Under this arrangement the two languages are used separately in different subject areas. The period from 1974 to 1978 was designated as a transition period during which a gradual shift to dual language use was to be effected. Full implementation was mandated beginning in 1978 in

[1]Pilipino is the official name of the Tagalog-based national language. See Chapter III for further explanation.

accordance with the following schedule: primary, 1978-79; intermediate, 1979-80; first and second year high school, 1980-81; and third and fourth year high school, 1981-82.

In non-Pilipino-speaking regions the vernacular languages are resorted to only when necessary to facilitate understanding of the concepts being taught through the prescribed medium. Because of the bilinguality in Philippine social life (where language choice is determined by situational factors), Pilipino is designated as the instructional language for social studies, character education, health, and physical education. English is designated for science, mathematics, and allied areas.

Pilipino and English are taught as subjects in all grades. Literacy in Pilipino is taught in the first grade. Literacy in English is taught beginning in the second grade and is built on a year of Pilipino literacy and oral English development. The goals for both Pilipino and English teaching in the Philippines are (1) to afford full participation in the culture of the language (integrative); and (2) to use the language instruction as access to opportunities: economic, social, and educational (instrumental) (Sibayan, 1977).

Writing in school is done in both English and Pilipino. The courses of study for both languages list, among other categories, an inventory of written communication skills. One major writing activity outside the schools is letter writing. One interesting finding of the 1969 Philippine Normal College survey was that the favored language among the respondents for letter writing was English (Juco, 1977). In addition to school reading activities, students have many opportunities to read in English and Pilipino outside the schools because Philippine social life is conducted in these two official languages. Also, there is heavy circulation of English and Pilipino newspapers, magazines, and comic books in the Philippines.

The attention given to oral language development in Pilipino in public school course manuals is evidence of the perceived significant role of oral language in the enhancement of cognitive skills and as a necessary foundation for literacy. Oral skills in Pilipino are developed at school through Pilipino language classes and through the use of Pilipino as a medium of instruction.

Use of Pilipino and English

A number of studies appear to support the choice of Pilipino among Philippine languages for dual use with English:

1. The Philippine Language Survey (Otanes and Sibayan, 1969) reported among its findings that:
   a. Of the three official languages (English, Pilipino, and Spanish), Pilipino was the language most frequently mentioned as

most necessary for success in vocational work (carpenter, farmer, fisher, homemaker, market seller); English and Pilipino were considered necessary for success in many professions (clerk, doctor, lawyer, police officer, priest, secretary, surveyor, teacher).

b. Of the 211 respondents of various occupations and native languages, 152 spoke Pilipino.

2. A nationwide survey to determine the language most commonly spoken, read, and written by native speakers of eight major languages (Barcelona, 1977) revealed that Pilipino ranked the highest of all languages in all modalities (understood by 148 out of 200) and was followed by English (understood by 107); Cebuano (understood by 38); and Ilocano (understood by 28).
3. A study of 360 college students in Greater Manila (Barrios and others, 1977) investigated whether or not languages were assigned by speakers to different roles and if variables of place, topic, and persons caused differentiated language use. The results indicated that a mixture of Pilipino and English was the most prevalent usage. The predominantly English variety of this mixture was demonstrated more often for speaking to teachers and priests, solving mathematics problems, and communicating in the school setting. The predominantly Pilipino variety of the mixture was favored for speaking to friends, parents, and employers; talking about how children are supposed to behave; explaining how a game or a job is to be done; and communicating in the home.

Although estimated to be second only to Pilipino in the number of speakers, English has maintained its unique position of providing a medium of communication for the linguistically diverse population that has only recently accepted a national language. Like Pilipino, another official language in the Philippines, English is used in all governmental, military, and educational communications. From the coming of the Americans in the early 1900s until 1957, English was the sole instructional medium in all levels of education, both public and private. In 1957 English was designated as the language of instruction from the third grade in the elementary level up to, and including, college. According to the *Implementing Guidelines for the Policy on Bilingual Education* (1974), English is to be taught in all schools as a subject and used as a medium of instruction in science, mathematics, and allied subjects from the elementary to the university levels. Additionally, English is also used in the media, in some newspapers, radio and television programs, and even movies.

Several studies in code-switching and code-mixing among Pilipino-English bilinguals have been conducted to describe or predict the

interaction of topic, speakers, and setting in choosing a language. Ramos (1971) reported that all four of her informants, graduate students whose main occupation was teaching and who had English as the medium of instruction for a minimum of 14 years, agreed that pure English is used in very formal situations in which the interlocutors involved usually have a superior-inferior relationship, and that mixed Pilipino-English with English as the base is used among equals.

Pascasio and Hidalgo (1973) found that university students used more English than Pilipino at school. Often, English was used by students in discussions of academic topics and in conversations with English-speaking people. One-hundred high school students in a private nonsectarian university in the Greater Manila area claimed phrases only to their superiors. They reported using Pilipino with a few English words and phrases in speaking to others (Bautista and others, 1977).

In an exploratory study conducted among 50 junior college students, Castillo and Galang (1973) found that of the three components—person, place, and topic—only the person component affects the choice of language usage. The respondents said they would use slightly more English when talking to their teacher and employer and half Pilipino and half English to the priest. However, a more recent survey among 360 randomly selected second-year college students from eight colleges and universities representing the metropolitan areas of Manila, Quezon City, Marikina, and Makati revealed that all three components (person, place, and topic) had significant effects on language choice (Barrios and others, 1977). As in the Castillo and Galang study (1973), college students employed code switching ("mix-mix"), using either predominantly English or Pilipino, depending on the domains and three components. At school the predominantly English "mix-mix" is used; but at home, in church, and at the beach the "mix-mix" tended to favor Pilipino. Although the reported language usage is generally a mixture, predominantly English is used when respondents speak to teachers and slightly English when they speak to priests. The slightly Pilipino mixture is used when speaking to employers, and mostly Pilipino "mix-mix" is employed with friends and parents. Respondents claimed the tendency to use a mostly English mixture when talking about how to solve a problem in mathematics, and mostly Pilipino when talking about such topics as how a son or daughter is expected to behave, how to play a game, or how to do a job in the most efficient way.

Results of these and other studies suggest that the amount of English and Pilipino used varies with domain as a whole. Almost always, more English than Pilipino is used in the school, whereas

there is equal use of English and Pilipino for social gatherings (Pascasio and Hidalgo, 1973). English use is minimal among those of the lower socioeconomic status. The children of the poor, who rarely stay in school after grade four, have limited exposure to English (Bresnahan, 1979).

There is sufficient evidence to show that in the Philippines English is the language of formality, education, and power on the national scene. Also, the combined use of English and Pilipino, particularly in the Greater Manila area, has become a natural way of speaking.

Factors in California

Even before Filipino children enter American schools, they have already been exposed to English. They hear English spoken practically everywhere in their environment. They hear and speak it at home, they watch television, and they listen to radio programs, a majority of which are in English. Outside the home they use English when they speak to their friends and when they watch English language movies.

In comparison with English, exposure to Pilipino is less extensive. The home is the main source for developing and maintaining Pilipino language skills. Movies filmed in the Philippines are available at businesses that rent videotapes or are shown regularly in theaters located in areas where there are concentrations of Filipinos, as in San Francisco.

The Philippine government, through the Philippine consulate and different Filipino associations, assists in developing Pilipino language skills by sponsoring programs in commemoration of historical events (e.g., Philippine Independence Day and Rizal Day). Pilipino songs, poems, plays, and dances are usually part of the celebration on these occasions.

In Filipino social gatherings and other functions, English and Pilipino are used as media of communication, especially when the participants belong to different Filipino language groups. A survey of 1,629 Filipinos living in Mountain View, California, between September, 1977, and March, 1978, comprising 90 percent of the Filipino community in the area, reported English to be the language most frequently spoken at home (42 percent); followed by Pilipino (25 percent); and Ilocano (24 percent) (Beebe, 1978). Of those who claimed to have grown up speaking Pilipino, about 64 percent are at present using Pilipino at home; 26 percent, English; and 3 percent, Ilocano. Approximately 30 percent of those who grew up speaking other Philippine languages now use Pilipino at home, and about 39 percent now speak English. It seems that individuals who grew up speaking Pilipino are likely to speak Pilipino with some code-

switching to English. Those who grew up speaking other Filipino languages were almost as likely to use Pilipino at home as their primary language. Among people who no longer use the language they grew up speaking, almost as many now use Pilipino at home as those who use English. In the Mountain View sample, 39 percent of the respondents watch the local Filipino television program every Sunday afternoon. Although Pilipino dominates the broadcast media directed at Filipinos in the Bay Area, English is used almost exclusively in the several Filipino newspapers in the United States. Only 14 percent of the Filipino households in Mountain View claimed to subscribe to such newspapers.

Summary of the Chapter

Esteem for education and literacy in the Philippines is reflected in the national literacy rate of 85 percent in 1975. The Philippine Department of Education and Culture has mandated bilingual education in all schools from the first grade to the university level, using Pilipino and English in a partial or complementary fashion, which is compatible with the use of the two languages in Philippine society. Both languages are taught as subjects. Although reading in Pilipino is taught from the first grade, English literacy training is deferred until the second grade and is based on a year of oral skills development and on a year of literacy instruction in Pilipino.

Both English and Pilipino have been designated as official languages and media of instruction and are taught as subjects in the Philippines. Each has been assigned to specific domains or functions. Empirical investigations of language use in the Greater Manila area have indicated that English is the language of formality and is usually used in settings such as the school, while Pilipino is the language of intimacy and informality and is used more frequently in the home. It has been reported that the combined use of English and Pilipino has become very common in oral communication, especially in the Greater Manila area.

In California, Filipino children's exposure to English is generally greater than their exposure to Pilipino. While English is heard and spoken practically everywhere by the children, Pilipino is heard and used less frequently, usually in the home, in Filipino movies, on local television programs, and during Filipino national celebrations and other social functions.

Chapter III

Linguistic Characteristics of the Pilipino Language

Pilipino, a Tagalog-based language, is one of the Philippine languages belonging to the Austronesian (also called Malayo-Polynesian) language family which extends from parts of Taiwan in the north to parts of New Zealand in the south and from Easter Island in the east to Madagascar in the west. This family includes the indigenous languages of Oceania, Indonesia, Madagascar, Malaysia, Taiwan, and some scattered languages in Vietnam, Thailand, Cambodia, and Laos. Numbering about 300 to 500, Austronesian languages comprise 7 to 10 percent of the world's languages (Dyen, 1956).

Distribution of Languages in the Philippines

Authorities disagree on the exact number of Philippine languages. Beyer (1917) listed 43 languages and 87 dialects. In his tentative outline of the native Philippine ethnic and linguistic groups, Conklin (1952) listed 75 main language groups, 32 of which had 113 subgroups. By the end of 1967, the University of the Philippines' research project on Philippine languages and dialects had collected data on more than 300 Philippine dialects, which were tentatively grouped into more than 70 main linguistic groups (Constantino, 1971). The 1970 Philippine census lists 75 Philippine mother tongues.

The large number of Philippine languages, estimated to number between 75 and 150, is partly due to the physiographic features of the country. The Philippines is a Southeast Asian country consisting of approximately 7,100 islands and islets off the southeast coast of mainland China. Rugged mountain ranges and an array of rivers on the larger islands tend to isolate the population, causing linguistic diversity.

On the basis of the number of native speakers, eight of the Philippine languages have been designated major languages: Tagalog (Pilipino), Cebuano, Ilocano, Hiligaynon, Bicol, Waray, Pampango, and Pangasinan (arranged in the descending order of the number of native speakers of each according to the 1970 Philippine census). These are the native languages of the eight largest ethnic groups in the Philippines—all Christian groups. Commonly referred to as the major cultural-linguistic groups in the Philippines, these groups generally have the same names as their native languages.

As the linguistic map (Map 1) indicates, five of the major languages—Tagalog, Ilocano, Bicol, Pampango, and Pangasinan—are spoken mainly on the island of Luzon; the remaining three are spoken in the Visayan Islands and in the northern part of the island of Mindanao. Tagalog is spoken as the mother tongue in the provinces of Bataan, Batangas, Bulacan, Cavite, Laguna, Marinduque, Nueva Ecija, Occidental Mindoro, Oriental Mindoro, Quezon, and Rizal.

More than 90 percent of the population speak one of the eight major languages natively; the rest, largely indigenous non-Christians or Muslims, speak minor languages (Llamzon, 1978). Table 3, based on the 1970 Philippine census, indicates the number of native speakers of each of the eight major languages.

Features of Philippine Languages

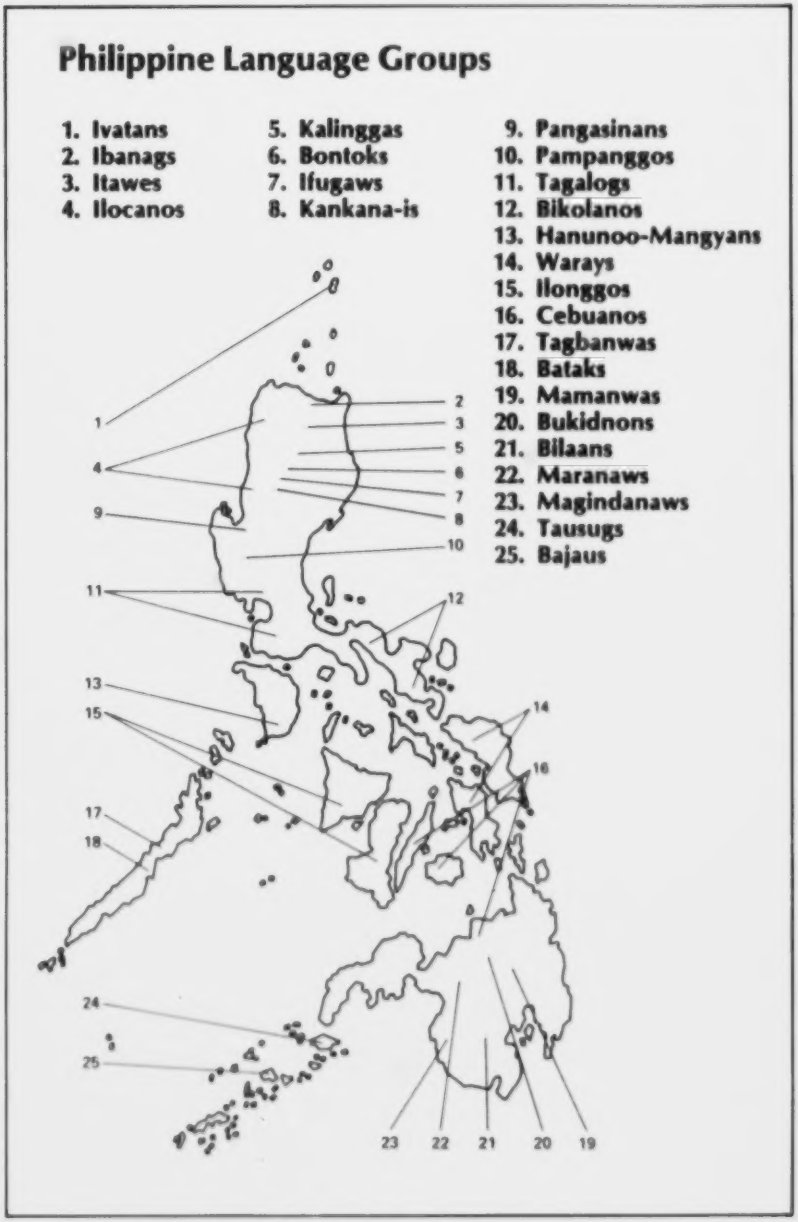
Filipino languages have been influenced, principally in vocabulary, by the languages with which they have come in contact: Sanskrit, Arabic, Chinese, English, and Spanish.

Although Philippine languages have many lexical and grammatical similarities, they also have enough significant differences so that they are mutually unintelligible. Tagalog, Bicol, Cebuano, Waray, and Hiligaynon are commonly classified as members of the same subgroup; Ilocano and Pangasinan seem to belong to another subgroup; and Pampango seems to constitute a subgroup by itself (Constantino, 1971). Far from being homogeneous, each of the major Philippine languages is broken up into several dialects that differ from each other phonologically and lexically.

Table 3

Native Speakers of the Eight Major Languages of the Philippines

Language	*Number of speakers*
Tagalog (Pilipino)	8,979,719
Cebuano	8,844,996
Ilocano	4,150,596
Hiligaynon	3,745,333
Bicol	2,570,156
Samar—Leyte (Waray)	1,767,829
Pampango	1,212,024
Pangasinan	838,104



Map 1. Location of Philippine language groups

Controversy over a National Language

The controversies that mark the history of the national language question exemplify the social conflicts that have resulted from competing languages. The need for an indigenous national language has been closely linked with the search for national identity that arose during the Spanish period and was continued during the American regime. On December 30, 1937, Tagalog, renamed Pilipino, was proclaimed by President Manuel L. Quezon as the basis of the national language, although it was second only to Cebuano in the number of native speakers.

The purist tendencies of the propagators of the national language and the regional connotations of the term *Tagalog* delayed its acceptance. To free the national language from its ethnic ties and to provide it with the properties of a national symbol, Secretary of Education Jose E. Romero renamed the Tagalog-based national language *Pilipino* in 1959. When the national language question was reconsidered in the 1971 constitutional convention, it became evident that the language situation in the Philippines as a linguistic/regional division had not changed much. Opposition to Pilipino still existed. The demands of pro-Pilipino groups that the new constitution be officially written in Pilipino (with translations in English, Spanish, and other Philippine langugages) and that the official language of the convention be the national language generated hostility between delegates from the Tagalog and non-Tagalog regions. The pro-Pilipino group lost when the delegates voted to promulgate the new constitution in English, with translations in all native Philippine languages spoken by more than 50,000 people, in Spanish, and in Arabic.

The Committee on National Language, created during the convention and composed mainly of non-Tagalogs, recommended the substitution of Pilipino by a new "common national language to be known as 'Filipino' based on the existing native languages and dialects without precluding the assimilation of words from foreign languages" (Llamzon, 1978). However, these recommendations were rejected. Finally, the new constitution, promulgated by President Ferdinand E. Marcos on January 19, 1973, provided that:

1. This Constitution shall be promulgated in English and Pilipino and translated into each dialect spoken by over 50,000 people, and into Spanish and Arabic. In case of conflict, the English text shall prevail.
2. The National Assembly shall take steps towards the development and formal adoption of a common national language to be known as 'Filipino.'
3. Until otherwise provided by law, English and Pilipino shall be the official languages.

Questions have been raised regarding the selection of a national language. As to the status of Pilipino, some claim that the constitution did not explicitly abrogate it as the national language, and that it therefore continues to fulfill this role. But there are also those who say that this abrogation was clearly intended by the framers of the new constitution because Pilipino was no longer designated as the national language and a substitute had been provided. However, Pilipino continues to be taught in schools and used in the mass media. In fact, it is taught as a subject and used as the medium of instruction in social studies, social sciences, character education, work education, health education, and physical education. Similarly, English is taught as a subject and is used as the medium of instruction for all other courses. These provisions are contained in the *Implementing Guidelines for the Policy on Bilingual Education* (1974) issued by Secretary Juan Manuel of the Philippine Department of Education and Culture.

According to Llamzon (1978) Tagalog and Pilipino are structurally the same and differ only sociolinguistically. The 1970 census figures indicate the increasing acceptance and use of Pilipino, which is currently spoken by about 55 percent of the population. A. B. Gonzalez (1974) predicts, based on the prestigious status of Pilipino as the language of Manila, the capital of the Philippines, and its increasing use by the mass media, that at least 82 percent of the population will be speaking Pilipino by the year 2000. Language experts believe that *Filipino* will be the new name for a language based on Tagalog in structure and characterized by an openness to lexical borrowing from other Philippine languages and from English, Spanish, and other foreign languages. These experts predict that when the National Assembly convenes, it will change the name of the Tagalog-based Pilipino to Filipino and compel the Institute of National Language to borrow sounds and words from other languages. Filipino may then be proclaimed as the national language of the Philippines.

Implications for Language Instruction in the U.S.

One of the factors that complicates the language situation in the Philippines is diversity. There are 75 to 150 native languages (of which Pilipino is one) spoken by Filipinos. Although these languages are in some ways grammatically and lexically similar, they are mutually unintelligible. Furthermore, each of the major languages has several dialects that differ, especially at the phonological and lexical levels. Depending on the region of origin, Filipino immigrants will speak at least one dialect of one of these mutually unintelligible languages.

Aside from speaking different native languages, Filipino immigrants vary in their proficiency in English and Pilipino. Until 1956 English was the sole medium of instruction in all schools in the country. The Revised Educational Policy of 1957 provided that the vernacular (the home or local language) should be used as instructional medium in grades one and two, with English and Pilipino as subjects. English was to replace the vernacular as the instructional medium from grade three on. This policy was rigidly implemented in the public schools but not in the private schools so that some so-called elite schools were able to continue using English as the language of instruction from the first grade.

Consequently, Filipino children vary in their previous exposure to English (Otanes, 1974). Some Filipino children have more exposure to English not only from having attended private schools that use the language as an instructional medium in the early grades but also because of access to supportive environments such as a library in the home, television and radio, and other opportunities found in affluent homes and communities. However, the majority of Filipino children, regardless of their socioeconomic backgrounds, have had exposure to English as the only medium of instruction beginning in the third grade.

The Philippine Center for Language Study found that in Rizal Province the command of a second language was directly proportional to the number of years in which it was used as the medium of instruction (Davis, 1967). If this finding is valid, then those immigrant children who were educated in the schools that followed the Revised Educational Policy of 1957 would be expected to have less command of English than those who went to schools that did not. According to P. F. Moral (1969), 95 percent of the elementary school age population attend public elementary schools, and 5 percent are enrolled in private elementary schools.

Assuming that the Bilingual Education Policy of 1974 is strictly enforced in both public and private schools, all Filipino children will be exposed to English and Pilipino, which are used as mediums of instruction in specific subjects at all levels of the educational system. However, outside of school, exposure to English will still vary, depending on the socioeconomic background of the child. It should be noted that for the non-Pilipino-speaking child, both instructional mediums will be second languages with the exception of grades one and two, where the home language is allowed as an auxiliary medium.

Differences Between Pilipino and English

Pilipino and English have phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic differences.

Differences in Sounds

There are fewer sounds in Pilipino than in English. Table 4 (Hemphill, 1969) summarizes the differences in the distinctive sounds of Pilipino and English. In addition to the inventory of Pilipino and English sounds, the chart in Table 4 indicates in the middle column the differences between the two systems. A heavy line around a block indicates an absence of the English sound in Pilipino. The symbols in these blocks represent the most likely substitute Pilipino sounds. A double line around a block points out a different problem; that is, although there is a comparable sound in Pilipino, the Pilipino sound is so different from the corresponding English sound that there will be some difficulty recognizing such a sound. Although almost all of the blocks could be double-lined using this criterion, only those where the difference is critical or very noticeable are so marked. *Note:* The correspondence between Pilipino and English vowels is more complicated than the correspondence between consonants.

Aside from the absence of many English sounds in Pilipino, other differences in the sounds of the two systems exist (T. V. Ramos, 1970). Some of these differences are:

1. Initial letters *p-*, *t-*, and *k-* are never aspirated in Pilipino but are aspirated in English.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*English meaning*
p*ilak*	silver
*ma***t***apang*	brave
k*ulay*	color

2. The velar nasal *ŋ* is present in both systems and is represented by the digraph *ng*. This sound occurs in all positions in Pilipino: initial, medial, and final. In English, however, it occurs only medially and finally.

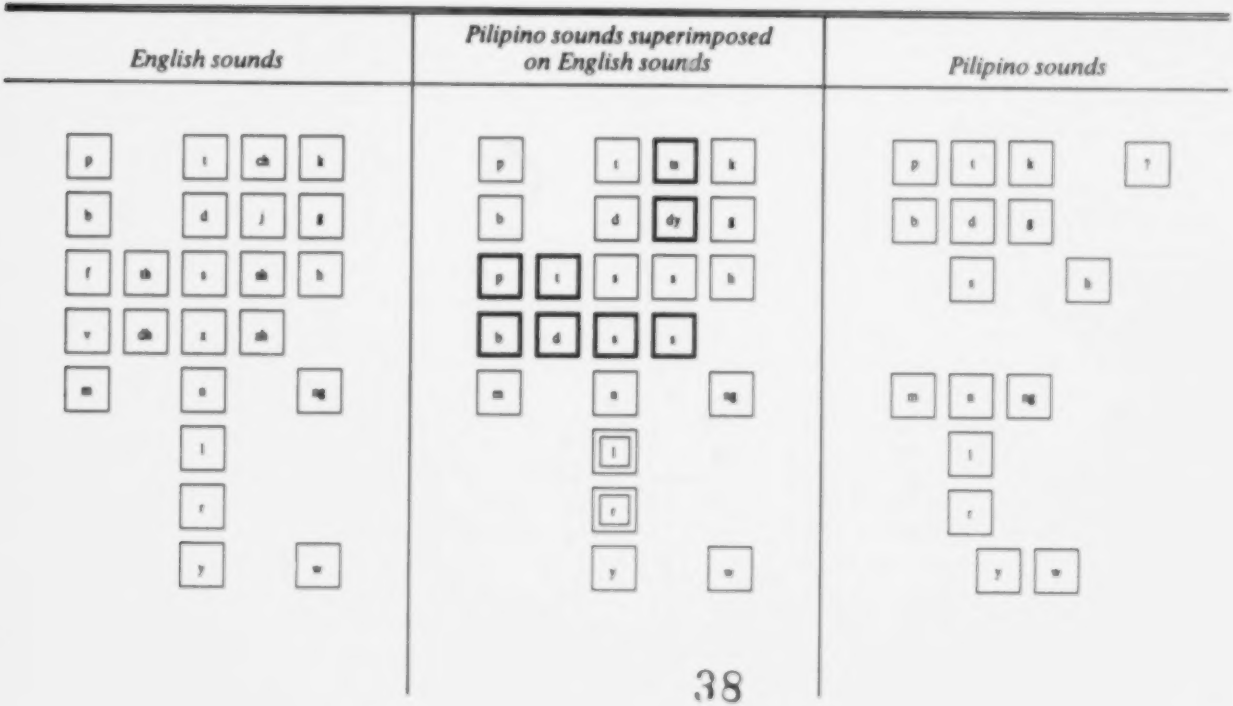
   Examples:

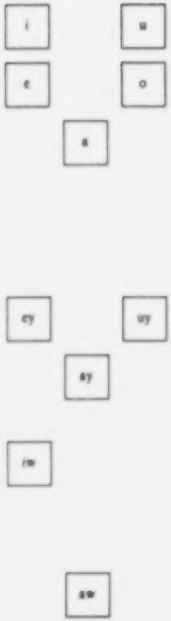
Pilipino	*English*
ng*ayon* ("now")	
*sa***ng***a* ("branch")	singer
*payo***ng** ("umbrella")	ceiling

3. The glottal stop, represented in this handbook by the symbol (ʾ), is produced when the glottis is closed, thus stopping the air passage from the lungs. Although present in both Pilipino and English, this sound is distinctive only in the former. The glottal stop, though not represented in writing, distinguishes minimal

Table 4

English and Pilipino Sounds Compared





Source: Hemphill, 1969; used with permission.

pairs of words, such as *bata'* (child and *bata* (robe); and *tubo'* (profit) and *tubo* (tube).

There are other differences that are less significant, such as the following:

1. The Pilipino *r* is produced by rapping the tongue against the upper gum ridge, but the English *r* is produced by curling up the tongue so that it does not touch the roof of the mouth.
2. The Pilipino *l* is pronounced with the tongue relatively straight and flat from the tip to the back, but the English *l* is produced by having the tongue form a hollow from which sides the air flows.
3. *T, d, n,* and *s* are produced with the tongue tip at the back of the upper teeth in Pilipino but behind the upper gum ridge in English.

Differences in Morphology and Lexicon

T. V. Ramos and V. de Guzman (1971; used with permission) list some morphological and lexical features of Pilipino not present in English:

1. Pilipino has a complex system of affixation. Most words consist of affixes and roots. The specific meaning of a word is determined by the combination of the root and its affix. The roots are substantive, verbal, and adjectival in meaning, and the affixes show aspect, focus, and mode. Note how the root *basa* (read) denotes different meanings, depending on the affix added.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*Part of speech*	*English meaning*
***mag*basa**	(v.)	to read
b*um*asa	(v.)	to read
***maka*basa**	(v.)	to be able to read
***pala*basa**	(adj.)	fond of reading
ba*basa*hin	(n.)	reading material

2. Almost any root in Pilipino may be transformed into a verb by affixation.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*Part of speech*	*English meaning*
taksil	(adj.)	unfaithful
magtaksil	(v.)	to be unfaithful
tanim	(n.)	plant
magtanim	(v.)	to plant
ayaw	(adj.)	negative particle
umayaw	(v.)	to refuse

3. Reduplication is used extensively to show plurality, intensity, uncompleted action, and so on.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*English*
masipag	diligent
masisipag	diligent (plural)
lima	five
lima lima	by fives
lilima	only five
lilimalima	the only five (intensified)
bili	buy
bibili	will buy
binibili	buying (uncompleted action)

The large-scale borrowing by Pilipino from Spanish and English has resulted in lexical interference of various kinds (Goulet, 1971). An example of such interference is the use of false cognates. Although some cognates have the same range of meaning and can fit into similar frames, their patterns of distribution are often not exactly alike. An incomplete knowledge of the range of meanings and patterns and distribution of cognates often leads the Pilipino speaker to construct sentences that are either amusing or incomprehensible to native speakers of English and Spanish. For instance, the Spanish *destinar* ("to designate or assign") is equated with the English *destine* ("to predetermine, as by divine will, or to appoint"). *Nadestino ang tatay ko sa prubinsiya ng isang taon* is often translated as "My father was destined in the province for a year" instead of "My father was assigned to the province for a year."

Differences in Syntax

There are eight key syntactic differences between Pilipino and English:

1. The normal word order of simple sentences in Pilipino is the reverse of the word order in English; that is, predicate (or comment) followed by subject (or topic). The predicate may be verbal or nonverbal elements in both languages. It should be noted, however, that in Pilipino, prepositional phrases and adverbial words may be used as nonverbal predicates. Examples of simple sentences in Pilipino are:

Verbal	*Predicate/comment*	*Subject/topic*
	Lumangoy ("Swam")	*ang mama* ("the man")
	Namatay ("Died")	*ang guro* ("the teacher")
	Nabasag ("Broke")	*ang baso* ("the glass")
Nonverbal		
Nominal:	*Estudyante* ("Student")	*siya* ("she/he")
Prepositional:	*Sa Monterey* ("In Monterey")	*ang piknik* ("the picnic")
Adverbial:	*Kahapon* ("Yesterday")	*ang klase* ("the class")

2. As exemplified by the above sentences, in Pilipino there is no equivalent of the verb *to be*.
3. An important feature of Pilipino and other Filipino languages that is not present in English is *focus*; i.e., the verbal feature that indicates on the surface the relationship between the verb and the subject noun phrase or topic of the sentence. The verbal affix indicates, on the surface, one of the following relationships between the verb and the subject:

Examples:

Agentival:	*Kumain* ate	ng mangga a mango	ang bata. the child (agent or actor)
	The child ate a mango.		
Object:	*Kinain* ate	ng bata the child	ang mangga. the mango (object)
	The child ate the mango.		
Locative:	Pinagkainan at on	ng bata the child	ang pinggan. the plate (location)
	The child ate on the plate.		

4. The Pilipino verb system does not make true tense distinctions but instead makes a distinction of aspect; i.e., the characteriza-

tion of an event as begun or not begun and, if begun, as completed or not.

Examples:

Pilipino	*English*	*Aspect*
uminom	'drank'	(begun and completed)
umiinom	'drinking'	(begun, but not completed)
iinom	'will drink'	(not begun)

5. Pilipino uses linkers or ligatures extensively to connect words, phrases, and sentences that are related to each other as a modifier and that which is modified. The two forms of the major linker are *na* and *-ng*. *Na,* which occurs between the modifier and the modified or vice-versa, is used after consonants. *-Ng* is attached to the first member of the construction when it ends in a vowel or *n*. When attached to a word ending in *n*, the *n* of *-ng* is dropped.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*English*
*matalino***ng** *mag-aaral*	intelligent student
apat **na** *sumbrero*	four hats
malakas **na** *ulan*	heavy rain
*maikli***ng** *kuwento*	short story
*maganda***ng** *bahay*	beautiful house

6. Unlike English, Pilipino does not indicate gender in its third person, singular pronouns.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*English*
siya	he/she
niya	him/her
kaniya	his/hers

7. Pilipino distinguishes between the first person plural exclusive and inclusive pronouns.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*English*
kami (exclusive)	we
tayo (inclusive)	
namin (exclusive)	our
natin (inclusive)	

8. In Pilipino the verb is usually not inflected for number, and the same form occurs with both singular and plural nouns/pronouns.

Examples:

Pilipino	*English*
Naglalaro siya.	He/She is playing.
Naglalaro sila.	They are playing.

Characteristics of Pilipino Written Language

Pilipino is highly phonetic, having an almost one-to-one correspondence between letter and sound. Except for the glottal stop, every consonant and vowel sound is represented by one letter in the alphabet. Now in use is the 20-letter Roman alphabet in Pilipino, which was introduced by the Spaniards to replace the indigenous writing system.

In 1976 the Philippine Department of Education and Culture issued a memorandum containing the modifications in the orthographic rules of Pilipino. These modifications were introduced by the Institute of National Language to adjust to the need for modernization and to keep pace with rapid developments and changes taking place in the Pilipino language—the influx of linguistic elements from the different influencing languages, native as well as foreign. Foreign words, particularly proper nouns and words recently introduced or used in Filipino, may retain their original spelling. Therefore, the letters *C, CH, F, J, LL, Ñ, Q, RR, V, X,* and *Z* may be used.

Students are taught to read and write in this system during their first year in school, i.e., in the kindergarten or first grade.

Abakada

(Pilipino Alphabet)

Letters used for standard Pilipino words			*Letters used for foreign words*		
A	I	R	C	LL	V
B	L	S	CH	Ñ	X
K	M	T	F	Q	Z
D	N	U	J	RR	
E	NG	W			
G	O	Y			
H	P				

Figure 1. Abakada, the Pilipino Alphabet.

Interrelationship Between Language and Culture

The close interrelationship between language and culture is demonstrated by the ways in which certain aspects of Philippine culture are reflected in the Pilipino language.

Courtesy or Respect

Courtesy or respect is highly valued by Filipinos. Linguistically, this is manifested in several ways (Ramos, 1978):

1. The respect particle *po'* (or the less formal variant *ho'*), which is roughly equivalent to "sir" or "madam," is used for older people, one's superiors, or strangers. Thus, when Pilipino speakers talk in English, they often punctuate sentences with "sir" or "madam." An overabundance of the translations of these respect particles, which often characterizes English speech, gives the impression of extreme humility and, in the American context, may be considered superfluous.
2. The second and third person plural pronouns *kayo* ("you" plural) and *sila* ("they") are used in place of the singular form.

   Examples:

Pilipino	*English*
(Second person plural)	
Kumain na po ba **kayo?**	"Have you eaten yet?"
(Third person plural)	
Kumain na po ba **sila?**	"Have you eaten yet?"
Instead of	
(Second person singular)	
Kumain ka na ba?	"Have you eaten yet?"

3. Kinship terms such as *kuya* and *ate* are used to refer to an older brother and sister.

   Examples:

Natutulog ang **kuya** *ko.*	"My older brother is sleeping."
Ate, *alis na tayo.*	"Older sister, let's go."

4. Titles such as *Mang, Aling, Doktor, Gobernador,* and so on are used to address an older man, an older woman, a doctor, and a governor, respectively.

Examples:

Pilipino	*English*
Aling Nene, nasaan po si Elena?	"(Title for an older woman) Nene, where is Elena?"
Mang Nestor, sasama po ba kayo sa Tatay?	"(Title for an older man) Nestor, are you going with Father?"

The interplay of Filipino cultural patterns with the educational situation has been studied by a host of researchers whose findings are not in complete agreement. For example, the frequent assertions about dependency and need for authority are a matter of dispute. In her study of grammatical, lexical, and cultural interference in English, Spanish, and Pilipino, R. M. Goulet (1971) discussed patterns of Filipino behavior closely tied to Pilipino speech. She mentioned the respectful silence which Filipino students maintain when asked to react to certain issues brought up in class. According to this view teachers and professors are considered as the epitome of wisdom; consequently, it would be unthinkable for students to question them. Thus, students would be expected to keep quiet and to refrain from openly disagreeing with professors. Professors would not be expected to encourage questions and would consider their positions challenged when students do ask questions.

Demonstrations of courtesy require Filipinos to use long preliminaries or "feelers" before making a request or asking a favor. For example, instead of barging in, a request may be preceded with, "Are you busy? May I disturb you?" And even when busy, one does not say so in order to give the impression that there is time for the person who made the request. T. V. Ramos (1978) also points out that a request might be relegated to the postscript section in a letter, although the request might be the sole reason for the letter.

Social Acceptance

Social acceptance which is also emphasized in Philippine culture may be achieved through *pakikisama* ("getting along") or through the use of good public relations, euphemism, or go-betweens. The desire to get along with others (*makisama*) and to trade favors and compliments is evidenced by complex rituals and the euphemistic use of Pilipino. For example, an American who is not familiar with the Filipino culture might become annoyed when a Pilipino speaker says he or she will "try to come" and then does not appear for the appointment. The American is annoyed because time is wasted waiting for the Filipino friend. Actually, the Filipino friend thought it

would save the American friend's feelings if he or she did not say outright that the appointment would not be kept. The American probably does not know that when the Pilipino speaker says, "I'll try," he or she usually means one of the following:

1. "I cannot do it, but I do not want to hurt your feelings by saying no."
2. "I would like to, but I am not sure you really want me to come. Please insist that I do."
3. "I will probably come, but I will not say yes because something may prevent me from coming. I have no control over what may happen."

With some persuasion this vague "I'll try" can be transformed to a reluctant yes or an apologetic no.

Similarly, the Filipino may resort to vagueries in speech and may use euphemistic expressions to avoid hurting the feelings of others. Instead of refusing flatly or disagreeing directly, the Pilipino speaker often uses such phrases as *siguro nga* or *baka nga* ("It may be so, perhaps") or more elaborate expressions or long preliminaries so as not to embarrass or "shame" (*hiya*) the person concerned. A Pilipino speaker, for example, might preface statements with the following: "This is not a criticism. I simply want to clarify certain points. In my opinion. . . ." Or the Filipino would rather remain quiet on a controversial issue. Not knowing that this is part of the desire to please and be accepted, the American might be annoyed or confused by this vagueness.

Very likely to be misunderstood by non-Pilipino speakers is the Pilipino speaker's asking of seemingly personal questions. *Saan ka pupunta*? "Where are you going?" is merely a form of greeting and should not be taken as a sign of excessive inquisitiveness. As a matter of fact, the person who uses this greeting does not wait for a definite answer and is content with a vague answer such as *Diyan lang* ("Just there") or *Wala* ("Nowhere"). Similarly, personal questions such as *Wala ka pa bang asawa?* ("Aren't you married yet?") or *Magkano ang suweldo mo?* ("How much is your salary?") and comments about the weather are merely conversation openers and are meant to show the Pilipino speaker's desire to be friendly or are attempts at expressing concern (Ramos, 1978).

The Pilipino speaker's desire to be accepted, to get along, not to shame people, and to conform to strict rules of obligation and debt results in an indirect and flowery kind of language which, when carried over to English, makes the Pilipino speaker sound strange to an American. The Filipino immigrant's English was learned in a Philippine context and has acquired cultural overtones different from

America's cultural context. This English, referred to as *Filipino English*, is sometimes difficult for other English speakers to understand.

Family Influence on Behavior

Understanding the Filipino child's verbal and nonverbal behavior requires an insight into some of the basic cultural patterns in Filipino families (Sanchez, 1974). Some of the behavioral manifestations of Filipino children and the Filipino values or cultural patterns that explain them, as cited by R. Sanchez (1974; used with permission), include:

Behavioral manifestations	*Cultural patterns/values*
1. Filipino children may be passive and may not show initiative, creativity, or independence. They may be reluctant, afraid, or slow to make decisions in the classroom—such as choosing a partner for a given group project or choosing visual materials to manipulate. To Filipino children, family approval is very important, and they usually rely on their parents to make decisions for them. Consequently, there is little or no opportunity to develop self-reliance, creativity, and initiative during childhood. Consulting parents even in personal matters continues until maturity.	"Parental authority clearly demands and impresses on the child's mind strict obedience to and actual suppression and diversion of drives" (Jocano, 1982).
2. Filipino children follow whatever the teacher says. They seldom ask questions. Filipino children have been trained to obey their parents and other adults. The younger Filipino children are expected to obey the older ones.	"Strict obedience and discipline are demanded and bred by the parent of the child" (Jocano, 1982).
3. Children seldom or never answer back, even when the teacher says something that they do not agree with. Children	"Respect is an element in every social situation" (Jocano, 1982). Answering back is a sign of disrespect, while

Behavioral manifestations	*Cultural patterns/values*
may bow their heads every time they see the teacher and bid the teacher goodbye before going home.	the greeting and farewell behaviors are just ways of showing respect.
4. Children may hesitate to approach the teacher, even when they need help. Because Filipino children cannot approach the teacher even when they are in trouble, they sometimes resort to using another—perhaps older—classmate as the go-between. The chosen classmate, who is usually the closest friend of another student who is older or as old as the child in need, will be the one to ask the teacher whatever the child wants. They expect the adult, in this case the teacher, to call for them if they are expected to do or know something.	Because of "generational stratification and age gradation of Filipino kinship, respect is expressed in the functional use of a go-between" (Jocano, 1982). Told that "children are not seen nor heard" (Jocano, 1982), Filipino children find it difficult to approach an adult and ask for something they want.

G. M. Guthrie and P. J. Jacobs (1966) studied Philippine and American child-rearing practices that might have significant effects on the personality development in both cultures. According to their perspective, continued contact during the time that the mother breast-feeds the Filipino child coincides with the development of an extensive dependency pattern which is encouraged, approved, and interpreted in the framework for respect. Mutual dependence between the individual and extended family is emphasized. Often raised in a one-room house with many siblings and other relatives, Filipino children may have little opportunity or encouragement to be alone. G. M. Guthrie and P. J. Jacobs (1966) suggest that the main responsibility lies in keeping good relationships with others. Thus, the ideal child would be one who pleases and lives peacefully with others and who does not hurt the feelings of others. Instead of being encouraged to assert personal interests, the Filipino child is encouraged to avoid aggressive acts and to attain personal goals by winning the support of the larger group.

Some observers consider *hiya* to be an important concept in understanding how Filipinos feel and think (Bulatao, 1964). *Hiya* refers to a mixture of shame, embarrassment, and feelings of inferiority. Failing an examination, being scolded by an elder or a teacher, and failing to maintain proper respect and behavior patterns may all represent occasions that could give rise to *hiya*. *Hiya* is considered a painful experience that every Filipino would try to avoid.

Closely related to *hiya* is *amor propio*, defined as "the inability to tolerate negative evaluations" (Batacan, 1956). Schoolchildren might even quit school when criticized by teachers or be afraid of strangers such as Americans, who may be considered blunt by Filipino cultural standards.

While the preceding paragraphs might help explain the behavior of immigrant Filipino children in the United States, it should be recognized that the constructs used in the sources cited are limited as to (1) the prediction and explanation of the ways in which Filipino children behave (including linguistic skills that Filipino children bring with them); and (2) the neglect of features of the new setting that influence the children's behavior (Forman, 1975). Similarly, G. M. Guthrie and P. J. Jacobs admit that because the descriptive aspect of their research represents a selection from all of the observations that could have been made, it is subject to biases and omissions.

S. Forman (1975) describes two attempts to provide some empirical checks on assertions about dependency and the need for authority in the current literature about Filipino immigrant children in Hawaii. Obtained frequencies of specific classroom behaviors revealed (1) that the literature indicating that the Filipino child never approaches the teacher is grossly inaccurate; and (2) that only one of the four *hiya* responses taken from J. Bulatao (1964) was displayed by Filipino students more frequently than others.

Summary of the Chapter

There are 75 to 150 indigenous languages spoken in the Philippines, all belonging to the Malayo-Polynesian family. Although closely related, these languages are mutually unintelligible. According to the 1970 Philippine census, more than 90 percent of the population are native speakers of one of the eight major languages: Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilocano, Hiligaynon, Bicol, Waray, Pampango, and Pangasinan (Llamzon, 1978).

To free the Tagalog-based national language of its ethnic ties and, therefore, to facilitate its acceptance, Tagalog was renamed Pilipino in 1959. At present the country has three official languages. English and Pilipino were established as official languages in the constitution ratified in 1973, and Spanish was established as an official language

by Presidential Decree Number 155. The 1973 Constitution also provides that "the National Assembly shall take steps toward the development and formal adoption of a national language to be known as *Filipino*. Language experts predict that *Pilipino* will be renamed *Filipino* and will be open to lexical borrowing not only from English, Spanish, and other foreign languages but also from the indigenous languages of the Philippines.

English and Pilipino are used in all official governmental, military, and educational communications. Although English is the most commonly used language, more and more documents are now being issued in Pilipino; and important communications are being translated into Pilipino, especially by the Institute of National Languages. Aside from the increasing use of Pilipino in political and social gatherings, there is also a growing literary tradition in that language (Beebe, 1978). Pilipino is transmitted as a second language through contact with native speakers, movies, radio and television programs, newspapers, magazines, comic books, schools, and other means. Spanish is rarely used, usually only for special reasons or occasions. Although there are many Spanish loan words in Philippine languages, the language is spoken only in the upper echelons of society (3.6 percent of the 1970 population). The three official languages are taught as subjects in the schools. Pilipino and English are required at all levels, and Spanish is an elective in all high schools, colleges, and universities.

Between 1900 and 1957 English was the sole medium of instruction in all Philippine schools. In 1957 the vernacular was designated as an instructional medium in the first two grades. However, the vernacular policy was implemented rigidly only in public schools. In 1971 teachers were allowed to use Pilipino in the classroom at any level if they felt competent in it, necessary materials were available, and the students could understand the language. In 1974 the Philippine Department of Education and Culture promulgated guidelines for the implementation of the bilingual education policy. ***Bilingual education*** was defined as "the separate use of Pilipino and English as media of instruction in definite subject areas provided that, additionally, Arabic shall be used in the regions where it is necessary."

It should be recognized that almost all Filipino immigrant children in the United States speak one of the Philippine languages natively. Such children's abilities in English and Pilipino vary, depending on their exposure to the two languages which, in turn, depends on where they came from, the schools they attended, and their socioeconomic status. Their linguistic backgrounds and proficiency in English, Pilipino, or other languages should be used as the basis for grouping them to better serve their educational needs.

Pilipino exhibits many phonological, morphological and lexical, and syntactic differences from English. Awareness of these differences help teachers predict or explain some stages Filipino children may pass through when learning the English language. Furthermore, Filipino immigrant children can be better understood and helped if teachers are aware of Filipino cultural patterns, including child-rearing practices.

Chapter IV

Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Pilipino Language Development

In the preceding chapters of this handbook, the cultural, social, and linguistic characteristics of Pilipino-speaking students were described. On the basis of this information and recent research on the schooling of language minority students, the curricular and instructional strategies for Pilipino language development are examined in this chapter within the context of public education in the United States. The issues of transferability of bilingual skills, literacy acquisition, and instructional strategies specific to these areas are also presented. Finally, the concern as to when and how English (both oral and written) should be taught is addressed.

Because most Filipino children in the Philippines enter school without having benefited from readiness training afforded by kindergarten classes, they receive this background preparation in the first few weeks in the first grade. In addition to cognitive and oral language enrichment activities, provisions are made for a physical component dealing with such skills as auditory and visual discrimination, muscular coordination, and left-to-right progression.

In bilingual classes in the United States, readiness for reading in Pilipino, as well as initial decoding skills such as those taught in the *Kartilya* instructional method and in the kindergarten level of the Pilipino language arts materials (Asian American Bilingual Center, 1980), may begin at the kindergarten level so that the first grader can proceed directly to formal reading. A teacher of Pilipino language arts should help students extend the breadth and depth of their oral skills even while formal reading activities go on, especially for those children who come from the barrio schools in the Philippines, where such developmental opportunities are meager. For all new arrivals, experiences in concept and language formation will be necessary because of numerous ideas unique to the American culture that must be acquired by the immigrant students.

Methods for Teaching Reading in Pilipino

Methods for teaching reading in Pilipino have not been accorded much study. Two reasons for this situation are that (1) Pilipino as a

subject is a relatively new addition to the Philippine school curriculum; and (2) prior to the advent of bilingual education in 1973, not much emphasis was given to Pilipino as compared to English, which was usually the sole medium of instruction.

The methods employed in teaching Pilipino reading have been characterized by stability and consistency. The nature of the system by which Pilipino is recorded shows the suitability of the phonic method. The 20 graphic symbols in the alphabet have a one-to-one correspondence with the sound system, and spelling patterns are highly regular, requiring no elaborate set of phonics rules.

The *Kartilya* method (introduced by the Spaniards), which is the earliest known method for teaching reading in Pilipino, is still in use and consists of three components:

1. *Alphabet*. The letters are presented in both higher and lower cases, and the students memorize the letter names.
2. *Syllables*. The sounds of the vowels are taught first, after which each is combined with consonants to form syllables: consonant-vowel (*ba-be-bi-bo-bu*), consonant-vowel-consonant (*bat-bet-bit-bot-but*).
3. *Exercises*. Words and sentences form the beginning exercises, after which longer segments (paragraphs) are introduced. (See Appendix H for sample pages from a *Kartilya* book.)

Developers of Pilipino reading textbooks have more recently devised modified versions of the *Kartilya* to allow early introduction of larger and more meaningful segments of the language so that reading becomes immediately intelligible. The phonosyllabic method, for example, makes a rapid shift from meaningless syllables to words so that reading becomes meaningful immediately. The initial teaching of single-meaningless syllables is difficult to avoid because the Pilipino language consists largely of words of more than one syllable. Single syllable words are usually limited to function words, enclitic particles, and exclamatory expressions. After the vowel sounds are taught, consonants are introduced beginning with the continuants (sounds that may be prolonged) *m, s, n,* and *r* so that gliding into the vowel sounds is relatively easy. These choices are also advantageous in terms of word formation. With just *m* and *s*, the following Pilipino words may be spelled: *mo, mas, mesa, amo, misa, mais, sama, sa, si, ama, usa, aso, oso, isa,* and *uso*.

An approach very similar to the phonosyllabic method is demonstrated in one of the *Kartilya* samples (see Appendix H) entitled *Mga Unang Hakbang sa Pagbasa* (Salvador, 1959). Consonants are introduced in the following sequence: *B, K, T, M, N, S, L, H, G, D, P, R, W, Y, NG*. In this sequence students can begin reading sentences as soon as they have learned the first four consonants.

Traditionally, phonic methods for teaching reading have been favored because of their suitability to the Pilipino language, which is polysyllabic in nature and has a phonetic writing system. Contemporary variations use synthetic phonics (proceeding from single sound units to larger sound units) only in the beginning stages. The process quickly progresses to meaningful words and sentences. Phonetic analysis then includes analysis of component sounds of wholes (analytic phonics), a useful supplement to other word recognition skills (e.g., sight word reading, contextual clues, word configuration, and structural analysis).

Methods for Teaching Writing in Pilipino

Students begin writing in manuscript form because it is believed that this method facilitates work in beginning reading. Because the simple letter forms require fewer hand or eye movements and less lifting of the pencil at the end of single strokes, it is thought that children will be less strained when writing in manuscript form.

The basic physical skills required for handwriting consist of practice in establishing the dominant hand, handling the writing equipment, establishing left-to-right direction, and positioning the paper and pencil. Initial exercises include practice in making basic strokes and shapes (e.g., large and lower case circles, large and small vertical and diagonal lines, and spacing). Instruction in writing is begun by having students learn the letters of the alphabet. The letters are presented in relation to whole words. The copying of models in conjunction with specific instructions is an important initial activity. The order of presenting letters may vary. For example, some teachers prefer to follow alphabetical order to reinforce alphabetizing skill; others present letters in the order of difficulty. Sometimes, letters requiring similar strokes are presented together (e.g., *O, C, G; I, E, F, L, T, H*). Some sample models for letters in the *Abakada* (Pilipino alphabet) are provided in Appendix F. The first words that children write may well be their names and addresses, which are of special significance.

The transition to cursive writing is usually made in the middle of the second grade or at the beginning of the third grade. At that time, presumably, the children have gained sufficient small muscle coordination to enable them to make the extra flourishes and curves involved in cursive forms and to join these forms. The children are introduced to this second form of writing by being made aware of the difference between the two styles:

1. In manuscript writing the letters are separate; in cursive writing, they are joined.

2. In manuscript writing the pencil is lifted at the end of every stroke; in cursive writing the pencil is lifted at the end of the word to dot letter *i*'s and cross letter *t*'s. Demonstrations on both styles using the same words should make these differences evident to children.

For teachers wishing to present letters according to similarity of strokes, the grouping below might be helpful:

1. *i, u, w, r, s, t, h, k*
2. *n, m, y*
3. *a, o, d, g, p*
4. *e, l, b*

A review of courses in Pilipino language arts reveals writing skills in the two general categories of mechanics of writing (spelling, punctuation and capitalization, format, handwriting) and composition writing (reports, notes, letters, summaries, outlines, narratives, expositions, descriptions, poems or rhymes, and riddles). Composition-writing activities include copying, writing from dictation, completing test-type exercises, writing following models or outlines, and writing creatively. In addition to activities recommended under the writing category, there are writing activities involved in the other areas of language arts (e.g., vocabulary development, grammar, and reading) to provide reinforcement in the total field of Pilipino language arts.

Table 5 summarizes the grade by grade progression of writing skills in Pilipino. (The original text in Pilipino is in Appendix G.)

Introduction of Oral English Instruction

Most language-minority students benefit from oral English language instruction as soon as they enter school. The students should be ready to develop their basic interpersonal communicative skills in English. The critical element in school contexts is to design instructional programs for language-minority students so that exposure to English results in the efficient acquisition of basic competence in communication without interference with normal cognitive or academic subject matter and in affective development. Instructional environments vary in the degree to which they promote or inhibit this process among language minority students.

In school situations language minority students are exposed to English in four basic ways: (1) submersion classes; (2) grammar-based English as a second language (ESL); (3) communicative-based ESL; and (4) sheltered-English classes (see the Glossary). In submersion classes teachers instruct as if all of the students in the class were native speakers of English. Grammar-based ESL classes focus on phonology

Table 5
A Continuum of Writing Skills in Pilipino
Kindergarten Through Grade Six

Skill to be learned	*Grade in which skill is to be learned*						
	K	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
A. Mechanics of writing							
1. Makes correct hand/arm movements in writing	x	x					
2. Writes the alphabet correctly	x	x	x	x	x		
3. Writes name correctly	x	x					
4. Uses capital letters correctly in:							
a. Names		x	x				
b. First words in sentences		x	x	x	x	x	x
c. Proper nouns		x	x	x	x	x	x
d. Names of days and months		x	x	x	x	x	x
e. Titles of persons		x	x	x	x	x	x
f. Holidays				x	x	x	x
g. Titles				x	x	x	x
h. Words related to God							x
i. First words in parts of an outline					x	x	x
j. Salutation/complimentary ending in letters				x	x	x	x
5. Uses punctuation marks correctly							
a. Periods at end of sentences		x	x	x	x	x	x
b. Periods in abbreviations			x	x	x	x	x
c. Question marks		x	x	x	x	x	x
d. Commas in:							
(1) Words in a series			x	x	x	x	x
(2) Dates				x	x	x	x
(3) After *Oo, Hindi, Opo*				x	x	x	x
(4) In salutations/complimentary endings			x	x	x	x	x
e. Exclamation points				x	x	x	x
f. Apostrophe in contractions					x	x	x
g. Parentheses					x	x	x
6. Uses correct abbreviations						x	x
7. Copies correctly							
a. Words/lists		x	x	x	x	x	x
b. Sentences		x	x	x	x	x	x
c. Paragraphs			x	x	x	x	x
d. Letters			x	x	x	x	x
8. Writes from dictation							
a. Words/lists		x	x	x	x	x	x
b. Sentences			x	x	x	x	x
c. Paragraphs				x	x	x	x

Table 5 (continued)

Skill to be learned	*Grade in which skill is to be learned*						
	K	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
B. Composition of writing							
1. Writes sentences		x	x	x	x	x	x
2. Writes paragraphs							
a. One-paragraph composition				x	x	x	x
b. Two-paragraph composition					x	x	x
3. Writes letters							
a. Friendly (to tell news)			x	x	x	x	x
b. Invitation				x	x	x	x
c. Thank you				x	x	x	x
d. Excuse				x	x	x	x
e. Condolence				x	x	x	x
f. Congratulations						x	x
g. Request						x	x
h. Notice of visit						x	x
i. Business letter				x	x	x	x
4. Uses parts of speech correctly					x	x	x
5. Writes informal notes					x	x	x
6. Writes reports				x	x	x	x
7. Writes notices				x	x	x	x
8. Writes news articles						x	x
9. Writes summaries						x	x
10. Writes stories				x	x	x	x
11. Writes descriptions				x	x	x	x
12. Writes explanations				x	x	x	x
13. Writes rhymes/poems						x	x
14. Writes riddles				x	x	x	x

Source: Department of Education and Culture, Manila, Philippines, 1977.

and syntax and emphasize the learning of language rules through inductive (grammar-translation) or deductive (audiolingual or cognitive code) methods. Communication-based ESL, by contrast, places emphasis on language use and language functions. This type of instruction focuses on basic communicative competence, not on the learning of rules of grammar. Sheltered-English approaches deliver subject matter in the second language. In these situations second-language (L_2) acquirers usually are grouped together, special materials are provided, and students are allowed to speak in their primary language (L_1). However, the teacher always models L_2 native speaker or near-native speaker speech. Also, a native speaker-to-nonnative speaker register ("motherese," "foreigner talk") is used by the teacher. The research suggests that communicative-based ESL and sheltered-English instruction effectively promote the acquistion of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English. Grammar-based ESL and submersion classes have been found to be less effective in promoting such skills (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1981).

Grammar-based ESL instruction at best leads mostly to the development of the language monitor (Krashen, 1981). This monitor assists learners of a second language in the production of grammatically accurate utterances. However, several conditions must exist before individuals can efficiently use the monitor. First, the task must be focused on language forms in some way (e.g., a grammar test). Second, the learner previously must have learned the desired rule and must be able to recognize the appropriateness of the specific rule for the specific structure desired. Finally, the speaker needs sufficient time to retrieve the rule, adapt it to the speech situation, and use it correctly in producing the utterance. These conditions are not available to individuals in most normal speech situations.

Submersion Environments

Submersion environments are even less effective than grammar-based ESL because during submersion lessons language minority students do not comprehend much of what is said. Stephen Krashen states that the critical element of "comprehensible input" is $i+1$. The i is what the student can already comprehend in the L_2. The $+1$ is the additional input that is made comprehensible by a variety of strategies and techniques (Krashen, 1981). In submersion classes, however, the provision of $i+1$ is only infrequently achieved. Because most of the input is directed towards native English speakers, language minority students are exposed to English input at incomprehensible levels of $i+2$, $i+3$, and $i+n$. Considerable research indicates that submersion does not effectively promote either the development of basic interper-

sonal communicative skills or cognitive/academic language proficiency among language minority students (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981).

According to some recent second-language acquisition studies (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1981), the attainment of basic interpersonal communicative skills in a second language is largely determined by the amount of "comprehensible second-language" input a student receives under favorable conditions. Communication-based ESL and sheltered-English situations provide students with large amounts of such input under optimal conditions. Submersion environments and grammar-based ESL situations provide students with only very limited amounts of "comprehensible input" (especially in the initial stages) under conditions considerably less favorable for second language acquisition.

Unless there are important psychoeducational reasons, such as recent traumatic experiences or special learning disabilities, language minority students will benefit from exposure to English in communicative-based ESL and sheltered-English situations. Students will thereby acquire English and will not necessarily experience interference with normal cognitive/academic development or primary language development if the program also provides adequate instruction in these areas.

On the other hand grammar-based ESL and submersion environments may work against English acquisition. First, young children and older children who have not experienced normal cognitive or academic development probably do not have cognitive processes developed well enough to assimilate the complex and decontextualized language that characterizes grammar-based ESL and submersion classes. Additionally, in some cases so much attention is placed on speaking only in grammatically correct utterances that students become inhibited in the process of acquiring a second language.

In summary, a substantial amount of research evidence suggests that submersion environments and grammar-based ESL (audiolingual, cognitive code, and grammar translation) should not be provided to language minority students until they attain sufficient levels of basic interpersonal communicative skills and cognitive/academic language proficiency to benefit from such instructional contexts. Communicative-based ESL (e.g., the natural approach) and sheltered-English classes are effective in promoting the development of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English for students at any age and at any developmental or academic level except for those children who have diagnosed physical disabilities or who are suffering from some psychological trauma.

Bilingual Reading Instruction

The superior results gained from beginning literacy training in the mother tongue have been well documented in *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework* (Los Angeles: California State University, Los Angeles, 1981). From the logical point of view, it seems self-evident for language minority students that reading should begin with the language through which the child has accumulated learning and experience so that she or he takes a direct route to obtain meaning.

Findings of a six-year study in Rizal, Philippines, seemingly conflict with the widely held view that beginning reading in L_2 is academically disadvantageous (Davis, 1967). As is the case with the immersion studies in Canada (Lambert and Tucker, 1972) and California (Cohen, 1973), the Rizal study indicates that immediate immersion into the second language promotes simultaneous academic achievement and proficiency in the second language. The English immersion group performed better in English proficiency and in content areas than any of the groups instructed in Pilipino. Moreover, the immersion group did as well as the others in Pilipino proficiency (Davis, 1967). In a three-year study conducted in laboratory school classes at the Philippine Normal College (Masangkay and Otanes, 1977), three groups of children who were taught in three different instructional schemes (all English, all Pilipino, and bilingual English-Pilipino) did not differ significantly in performance at the end of the third year in all subject areas, including Pilipino and English language arts.

In analyzing the data of the Philippine, Canadian, and California studies, R. G. Tucker (1977) and T. Skutnabb-Kangas (1979) speculate that the academic success of students in these programs could be attributed to certain common features:

1. The students' primary language was also the majority language.
2. The children received a language arts program in their primary language.
3. The teachers held extremely positive expectations of the students.
4. The students did not have negative feelings about either language.
5. The students experienced an additive form of bilingualism.

In the United States these conditions do not usually exist. Appropriate exposure to Pilipino is drastically reduced; the language has minority status, and its speakers may have ambivalent feelings towards it. With supportive influences missing, limited bilingualism and subtractive bilingualism often occur. Given these probable risks, it would be educationally prudent to begin literacy training in Pil-

ipino to minimize chances of primary language deterioration, poor L_2 acquisition, and unsatisfactory academic achievement.

Criteria for Introduction of Reading in English

J. Cummins (1981) and E. W. Thonis (1981) provide helpful clues regarding the critical levels of oral English and literacy proficiency in the primary languge needed before introducing literacy in L_2. E. W. Thonis speaks of the universal aspects of literacy acquisition. There might be a common underlying proficiency (CUP) which J. Cummins regards as part of cognitive/academic language proficiency. J. Cummins speculates that cognitive/academic language proficiency as more critical in literacy acquisition than basic interpersonal communication skills, which level off sooner. He states that for language minority students, the L_1 reading level is a very stable predictor of eventual attainment in L_2 reading (Cummins, 1981). The criteria suggested here, therefore, for entry into English reading are (1) basic interpersonal communicative skills in English; and (2) cognitive/academic language proficiency in Pilipino.

The first problem that confronts educators of bilingual students is the measurement of basic interpersonal communicative skills and cognitive/academic language proficiency. Basic communicative skills in English can be measured by instruments that take samples of natural language. Test instruments such as the *Bilingual Syntax Measure* and the *Bilingual Inventory of Natural Language*, and the *Language Assessment Scales* for the most part measure basic communicative skills in English. The problem of measuring Pilipino cognitive/academic language proficiency skills is somewhat more complex. There are very few valid and reliable test instruments in Pilipino. Cognitive/academic language proficiency skills can be measured by cloze tests, reading tests, and other academic measures. Continua of language arts and reading skills also provide indications of cognitive/academic language proficiency performance. Examples of Pilipino cognitive/academic language proficiency measures include:

1. *The Reading Test in Pilipino*, Seattle Public School System
2. Asian American Bilingual Center evaluation tests
3. *PAGBASA*, Elementary Learning Continuum, Department of Education and Culture, Philippines
4. *Pilipino Language Arts Continuum*, Stockton Unified School District
5. *Inventory of Reading Skills (Sining Ng Wika)*, Asian American Bilingual Center, Berkeley

Once measurement instruments have been selected, achievement level criteria must be determined. Oral English language skills form

the basis for some aspects of English language reading. A student who scores in the fluent-English-speaking range on basic interpersonal communicative skills measures will probably have most of the prerequisite basic interpersonal communicative skills, which, in combination with cognitive/academic language proficiency skills, facilitate progress in English reading.

Various scholars have suggested a relationship between L_1 and L_2 cognitive/academic language proficiency skills. Several researchers (Cummins, 1981; Thonis, 1981) make a strong case that reading instruction in L_1 will support further reading instruction in L_2—if the literacy program is properly managed. Most reading continua consist of (1) readiness; (2) decoding; (3) literal comprehension; (4) inferential comprehension; (5) literary; and (6) study skills. Often, these continua also contain writing skills such as (1) handwriting; (2) spelling; (3) mechanics; and (4) discourse. Most of the skills in these areas form part of what J. Cummins (1981) refers to as common underlying proficiency (CUP). Consequently, most cognitive/academic language proficiency skills developed in Pilipino result in cognitive/academic language proficiency skills in English. Of course, there are some skills which are unique to either Pilipino or English. Even though both languages use the Roman alphabet, many of the decoding and spelling skills, as well as some mechanical skills, must be learned separately in each language. While important, these language-specific skills actually represent only a small part of what is considered reading or literacy development.

Logically, cognitive/academic language proficiency skills developed in Pilipino are most efficiently brought to bear on the task of English reading when individual students have mastered (learned and practiced) a substantial number of skills in each of the skills topic areas which form part of CUP. Literal comprehension and inferential comprehension appear to be especially critical areas since learning and practice of such skills lead students to a more complete understanding of the reading process. Generally, most students have been exposed to and have learned many of the previously mentioned cognitive/academic language proficiency skills sometime around the completion of the second grade. Of course, practice is required for full mastery, and this does not usually occur until the third or fourth grade or even later.

The appropriate time to introduce formal reading instruction in English depends largely on the nature of the instructional approach employed. In programs where the goal is biliteracy, reading instruction in Pilipino begins in kindergarten and continues through at least the sixth grade level. Under these conditions formal English reading could probably be introduced in the second or third grade without

causing any cognitive confusion among students—especially because previously learned cognitive/academic language proficiency skills are reinforced in Pilipino in grades three through six until full mastery is achieved. In transitional bilingual education programs, L_1 reading instruction is commonly provided only until it is determined that individual students are able to function in English-only classrooms. In this case English reading should be introduced when Pilipino reading skills are mastered well enough to transfer or to be applicable to similar reading tasks in English. Such mastery is probably achieved at about the fourth grade reading level. At this stage of Pilipino reading, most readiness, comprehension, literary, and study skills will be applicable to English. Finally, in English-only programs cognitive/academic language proficiency development takes place almost exclusively in English. Cognitive/academic language proficiency developed in or through Pilipino is not considered critical in the literacy acquisition process. Based on the English-only approach, language minority students would be introduced to formal English reading instruction once individual students have mastered the prerequisite readiness skills in English. Operationally, this would mean that language minority students must attain similar levels of basic interpersonal communicative skills and cognitive/academic language proficiency skills in English as are attained by native speakers of English when the latter students are introduced to formal reading instruction.

The three sets of criteria posited in the previous paragraph are suggested as a means of identifying the optimal time to introduce formal reading instruction in English. The recommendations correspond to the type of instructional approach selected—full bilingual, transitional bilingual, or English-only instruction. This is not to say that these three instructional approaches are of equal effectiveness in promoting high levels of English reading achievement among language minority students. A variety of community background, student input, and educational input factors will affect the quality of implementation of the instructional activities and the eventual outcomes of the instructional treatment.

In many instances approaches that promote high levels of biliteracy are likely to have positive outcomes. When appropriately implemented, such programs allow language minority students to reap the benefits of proficient biligualism and avoid the negative consequences of subtractive or limited bilingualism.

In summary, effective reading programs in bilingual contexts require that school personnel correctly match instructional approaches with student needs, community desires, and human and material resources. Eventual student reading performance can be

predicted in part, based on how accurately this procedure is followed. Regardless of the approach selected, the quality of implementation is an important determinant in producing positive outcomes. Finally, literacy programs should be evaluated on their ability to produce independent readers at the sixth grade level or higher. Unfortunately, some instructional treatments are discontinued because of the satisfactory performance of students in kindergarten through grade three. Recent studies indicate that the effects of special instruction for language minority students are cumulative (Cummins, 1981). The most positive outcomes appear after five or six years of treatment.

Exposure to Pilipino and English

Students should be exposed to both Pilipino and English so that they can become proficient in each langugage.

Acquisition of Pilipino

By the age of five or six, all children, except those who are severely retarded or aphasic, acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in their home language. By the time they enter school, U.S.-born Pilipino-speaking children have already developed basic communicative skills in Pilipino. If the family continues to use Pilipino in the home or if the student is exposed to Pilipino in other environments, basic communicative competence can be expected.

On the other hand, unless the child is exposed to some type of formal instruction in Pilipino, it is unlikely that the child will develop cognitive/academic language proficiency through that language (Cummins, 1981). Cognitive or academic language skills are those skills associated with literacy and general school achievement (Cummins, 1981). Considerable research on schooling in bilingual contexts indicates that it is cognitive/academic language proficiency in the primary language that aids language minority students in (1) development of similar cognitive or academic skills in English; (2) acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English; (3) maintenance and development of subject-matter knowledge and skills (e.g., in mathematics, science, and social studies); and (4) maintenance and development of a positive self-concept and adjustment to minority and majority cultures. Consequently, for language minority students most efforts at language development in Pilipino should be directed at the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency; that is, literacy and academic subject matter. As a result, students will be helped to avoid the negative effects of subtractive bilingualism and enjoy the benefits of proficient bilingualism. Cognitive/academic language proficiency through Pilipino can be promoted in several

contexts. The home, the school, and the community are all appropriate settings for this development.

Parents and older siblings should be encouraged to work with preschool and school-age children in a variety of activities that aid children in meeting the academic challenges of school (Wells, 1979). In the past teachers often encouraged language minority parents to speak English at home. Unfortunately, such a practice is often not possible or even desirable. Most language minority parents do not speak English well enough to be appropriate English models. Trying to speak English under such circumstances severely limits both the quantity and the quality of interaction between parents and children and almost certainly guarantees that the student will experience a form of subtractive bilingualism. Clearly, parents and other relatives may speak Pilipino at home and be certain that it will not interfere with English language development; on the contrary, such practices actually will result in higher levels of English attainment (Cummins, 1981). Some activities in Pilipino are more effective than others in promoting this outcome. Assisting students with homework, telling stories, playing games, reciting poems, singing songs, and reading to children in Pilipino are examples of effective activities. The key element appears to be what G. Wells (1979) calls "negotiating meaning" with children.

The school can promote the development of cognitive or academic language proficiency in Pilipino by providing students with a well-organized prereading and reading program that develops skills to at least the sixth-grade level. In addition, an equally important component is the provision of subject matter in Pilipino. At least one subject area should be selected for which Pilipino is used as the medium of instruction. Schools also can assist by providing students with ample reading material in the primary language, allowing students the opportunity to practice reading skills and become motivated about reading in general and reading in Pilipino in particular. Additionally, the school can strengthen the home-school link by sending home materials in Pilipino that would be used by parents with their children and by providing parents with training on how to support their children's language development (Thonis, 1981).

Although the school often is not directly involved in many types of community activities, school personnel are in a position to influence local community leaders in the design and implementation of many activities for children. Resource teachers, community liaisons, and other school officials should promote community activities that can develop Pilipino language skills in minority children. In the case of the Pilipino-speaking community, some activities might include (1)

afternoon and Saturday classes in Pilipino language and culture; (2) catechism classes in the primary language; (3) *Pagina Para Sa Mga Bata* or *Programa Para Sa Mga Bata* in Pilipiño language newspapers and on Pilipino language radio and television broadcasts, respectively; and (4) sponsorship of language and cultural activities by the various fraternal, religious, and educational organizations prevalent in the Pilipino community (Mackey, 1981). (See Appendix C for information on community resources.)

In the case of Filipino students who have a home language of English, the situation is much different. For these students, basic interpersonal communicative skills have been acquired in English but not in Pilipino. If the children and their parents are interested in bilingualism, arrangements should be made to develop basic communicative skills in Pilipino. This effort can be promoted by (1) having a relative, such as grandparent or aunt or uncle, always speak to the children in Pilipino; (2) enrolling the student in a communicative-based Pilipino-as-a-second-language class at school; (3) having the children interact with other children who are native speakers of Pilipino; and (4) providing subject-matter classes in Pilipino to these second language learners under conditions approximating those of the French Canadian immersion programs (Krashen, 1981).

Whenever two languages are in contact, speakers of the minority language tend to shift to the majority language within three generations. This pattern has been especially evident in the United States. First-generation immigrants are almost always Pilipino dominant. Second-generation individuals tend to be bilingual. Third-generation ethnic community members are often monolingual English speakers (Mackey, 1981; Gomes, 1974). The social/cultural arguments for or against language shift are numerous. What does seem to be clear is that students caught up in the process of language shift and assimilation often experience poor scholastic achievement. One way this might be avoided is to create a domain in which the minority language is more prestigious than English (Mackey, 1981). For example, such diverse groups as Armenians, East Indians, Hasidic Jews, and the Amish reserve the domain of religious instruction for the minority language. For other language groups such as Pilipino, traditional and contemporary cultural studies in the mother tongue can be provided in the school or the community. Clearly, any topic area or context can become a domain for the minority language as long as it seems logical, reasonable, and natural to use the minority language. In addition, within the selected domain English and the minority language should not be competing for prestige. The domain-specific dominance of the minority language clearly must be evident.

Acquisition of English

The focus of instruction in and through Pilipino should be the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency. In English, at least initially, the focus of instruction should be on basic interpersonal communicative skills. As indicated by S. Krashen (1981), there is a difference between language learning and language acquisition. Language learning is associated with formal instruction such as grammar-based ESL, language arts, and reading instruction. Language acquisition environments are associated with both formal and informal instructional situations. Examples of informal acquisition environments include watching television, playing with peers, or living with a native speaker. Examples of formal acquisition environments are communicative-based ESL and sheltered-English classes.

To acquire English fluency, students need substantial exposure to English in acquisition-rich environments. This type of environment can be provided in the home, school, or community. Educators often underestimate the exposure language minority students have to English. Several research studies (Legarreta-Marcaida, 1981; Cummins, 1981) indicate that regardless of the school program (submersion, ESL, or bilingual education), many language minority students in the United States acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in English in two or three years. The reason is that all environments contain some "comprehensible input." Whether at home or school or in the community, many students eventually obtain enough comprehensible English input and acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills. Nevertheless, parents and teachers should monitor individual student progress to ensure adequate exposure to English.

At home it is not uncommon for children to speak English with some relatives, especially siblings. Many youngsters sometimes watch children's television programs, such as "Sesame Street," "Electric Company," and cartoons. These are sources of "comprehensible second-language input." If one parent has native-like proficiency in English, this parent might want to serve as an English-speaking model. In these cases, for optimal development of both English and Pilipino, it is probably wise for some family members to maintain consistency as a particular language model and not to switch or mix languages frequently. If both parents speak Pilipino, however, and proficient bilingualism is desired, both parents should consider speaking Pilipino in the home because exposure to English is sufficiently available in many other domains (Cummins, 1981).

At school children will acquire native-like ability in English communicative skills in (1) ESL classes which are communicative-based (Terrell, 1981); (2) subject-matter classes delivered under special sheltered English conditions; and (3) by interaction with peers who are

native speakers of English on the playground, in the halls, during assemblies, on field trips, and in regular classes.

Communicative-based ESL, sheltered-English, and other natural language acquisition environments are generally insufficient in promoting all of the English language skills needed by language minority students. Once students have developed basic interpersonal communicative skills in English and a normal level of cognitive/academic language proficiency (basic skills learned in and through Pilipino and/or in sheltered-English classes), they are ready to benefit from grammar-based ESL and formal reading instruction in English. This instruction should focus on those cognitive/academic skills not already learned (e.g., language that is not part of the common underlying proficiency [Cummins, 1981]) and specific to English. Examples of such skill areas are some decoding, grammar, and spelling skills. Cognitive/academic language development in English is more efficient when school personnel build on already acquired cognitive/academic language skills in Pilipino.

Summary of the Chapter

Historically, parents and educators have considered the acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English as the only critical need for language minority students. While these skills are very important, the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency seems to be even more critical to school success. One way in which cognitive/academic language proficiency can be developed is through Pilipino. Opportunities to develop cognitive/academic language skills in Pilipino are not naturally available to students in most communities in California. Therefore, parents and educators must work together to design and implement such activities in the home, school, and community. On the other hand, opportunities to develop basic interpersonal communicative skills in English are naturally present in many language minority homes, most communities, and all schools. Those cognitive/academic language skills not learned in Pilipino can be added easily in English by specially designed instruction at school.

If students are to benefit from their bilingualism, attention to Pilipino language development and English language acquisition is necessary. Without this attention the majority of Pilipino-speaking children will continue to have serious language, academic, and cultural problems at school. The task of educating language minority students is not simple. Nevertheless, creative and committed educators in tandem with concerned parents recently designed and implemented educational programs for language minority students that have resulted in (1) high levels of English language proficiency; (2)

normal cognitive/academic development; (3) positive adjustment to both the minority and majority cultures; and (4) high levels of Pilipino language development. The purpose of this handbook has been to assist school personnel, parents, and community members in achieving similar goals.

Glossary

Abakada. The name of the Pilipino alphabet. The word *Abakada* is formed by the combination of the names of the first four letters of the Pilipino alphabet.

Additive bilingualism. A process by which individuals develop proficiency in a second language subsequent to or simultaneously with the development of proficiency in the primary language.

Affective filter. A construct developed to refer to the effects of personality, motivation, and other affective variables on second-language (L_2) acquisition. These variables interact with each other and with other factors to raise or lower the affective filter. When the filter is "high," the L_2 acquirer is not able, it is hypothesized, to process "comprehensible input" adequately (Krashen, 1981).

Basic interpersonal communicative skills. A construct originally developed by J. Cummins (1979) to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly associated with the basic communicative fluency achieved by all normal native speakers of a language. Basic interpersonal communicative skills are not highly correlated with literacy and academic achievement. This notion has been refined in terms of "cognitively undemanding-contextualized" language (Cummins, 1981).

Bilingual education program. An organized curriculum that includes (1) L_1 development; (2) L_2 acquisition; and (3) subject-matter development through L_1 and L_2. Bilingual programs are organized so that participating students may attain a level of proficient bilingualism.

Cognitive/academic language proficiency. A construct originally proposed by Cummins (1979) to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly related to literacy and academic achievement. This notion has been refined in terms of "cognitively demanding decontextualized" language (Cummins, 1981).

Communicative-based English as a second language. A second-language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods and techniques, and assessments of students' progress are based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to communicate messages in the target language. In communicative-based ESL the focus is on language function and use, not on language form and usage. Examples of communicative-based ESL instructional approaches include "Suggestopedia," natural approach, and community language learning (Terrell, 1981).

Comprehensible second-language input. A construct developed to describe understandable and meaningful language directed at L_2 acquirers under optimal conditions. Comprehensible L_2 input is characterized as language that the L_2 acquirer already knows (i) plus a range of new language ($i+1$) that is made comprehensible in formal schooling contexts by the use of

certain planned strategies. These strategies include but are not limited to (1) focus on communicative content rather than language forms; (2) frequent use of concrete contextual referents; (3) lack of restrictions on L_1 use by L_2 acquirers, especially in initial stages; (4) careful grouping practices; (5) minimal overt language form correction by teaching staff; and (6) provision of motivational acquisition situations.

Filipino. A person whose ethnic heritage can be traced to the Philippine Islands; the future designation for the national language of the Republic of the Philippines.

Grammar-based English as a second language. A second-language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods and techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to produce grammatically correct utterances in the target language. In grammar-based ESL, the focus is on language form and usage, not on language function and use. Examples of grammar-based ESL instructional approaches include grammar-translation, audiolingualism, and cognitive code (Terrell, 1981).

Immersion program. An organized second-language curriculum for majority students that includes (1) L_1 development; (2) L_2 acquisition; and (3) subject-matter development through L_2. Immersion programs are developed and managed so that participating students may develop proficient bilingualism.

Kartilya. A phonic method to teach beginning reading (decoding) skills in Pilipino and some other languages in the Philippines.

Limited bilingualism. A level of bilingualism at which individuals attain less than native-like proficiency in both L_1 and L_2. Such individuals invariably acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_1 and often demonstrate basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_2 as well.

Mix-mix. A term commonly used to refer to code switching in the Philippines. In the context of this handbook, mix-mix is used to describe a mixture of Pilipino and English.

Monitor. A construct developed to refer to the mechanism by which L_2 learners process, store, and retrieve conscious language rules. Conscious rules are placed in the monitor as a result of language learning. To effectively use the monitor, L_2 users must (1) have sufficient time to retrieve the desired rule; (2) be involved in a task focused on language forms, not on language function; and (3) have previously learned correctly and stored the rule. These three conditions are rarely present in day-to-day conversational contexts (Krashen, 1981).

Partial bilingualism. A level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in one language but achieve less than native-like skills in some or all of these skills areas in the other language.

Philippine. A person, place, or thing in or from the Philippine Islands.

Pilipino. The current term used to refer to the Tagalog-based national language of the Philippines. In the future the term *Filipino* may replace Pilipino for this purpose.

Proficient bilingualism. A level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in both L_1 and L_2.

Sheltered-English classes. Subject-matter class periods delivered in L_2 in which teachers (1) group L_2 acquirers homogeneously; (2) speak in a native speaker-to-nonnative speaker register such as "motherese" or "foreigner talk"; and (3) provide L_2 acquirers with substantial amounts of "comprehensible second-language input."

Submersion classes. Subject-matter class periods delivered in L_2 in which teachers (1) mix native speakers with second language acquirers; (2) speak in a native speaker-to-native speaker register; and (3) provide L_2 acquirers with only minimal amounts of "comprehensible second language input" (Krashen, 1981).

Submersion program. An organized curriculum designed for native speakers of a language but often used with language minority students. No special instructional activities focus on the needs of language minority students. Submersion programs are often referred to as "sink or swim" models. In such programs language minority students commonly experience a form of subtractive bilingualism, usually limited bilingualism.

Subtractive bilingualism. A process by which individuals develop less than native-like cognitive/academic language proficiency in L_1 as a result of improper exposure to L_1 and L_2 in school. Some individuals additionally experience loss of basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_1. In such cases L_1 basic interpersonal communicative skills are replaced by L_2.

Tagalog. A Malayo-Polynesian language spoken by a large number of people in the Philippine Islands. Tagalog was proclaimed the basis for the national language of the Philippines in 1937.

Transitional bilingual education program. An organized curriculum that includes (1) L_1 development; (2) L_2 acquisition; and (3) subject-matter development through L_1 and L_2. In early transitional programs students are transferred to English submersion programs solely on the basis of the acquisition of L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills. In late transitional programs students are exited on the basis of attainment of native-like levels of both L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills and L_2 cognitive academic/language proficiency sufficient to sustain academic achievement through successful completion of secondary school.

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80

Appendix A

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Pilipino

California law requires that school districts each year conduct a language census. The purpose of the census is to identify students who are considered to be limited-English proficient (LEP). Once identified, LEP students must, by state law, be offered bilingual learning opportunities.

According to the 1984 language census results, 33,907 students were reported to have Pilipino as their primary home language. A total of 10,941 or 32 percent of these students were found to be limited-English proficient and were classified as LEP. The following table lists 26 California school districts that reported significant concentrations of Pilipino-speaking LEP students in the spring of 1984.

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of LEP Students Who Speak Pilipino, 1984*

Name of school district	*Rank by number of LEP (Pilipino) students*	*LEP (Pilipino) enrollment (spring, 1984)*	*LEP (Pilipino) students as a percentage of state LEP (Pilipino) students*
San Francisco Unified	1	1,379	12.6
Los Angeles Unified	2	1,163	10.6
Vallejo City Unified	3	463	4.2
Long Beach Unified	4	347	3.2
Sweetwater Union High	5	314	2.9
San Diego City Unified	6	287	2.6
Jefferson Union High	7	278	2.5
East Side Union High	8	262	2.4
Oakland Unified	9	244	2.2
Fremont Unified	10	227	2.1
Alameda City Unified	11	192	1.8
New Haven Unified	12	182	1.7
Glendale Unified	13	178	1.6
ABC Unified	14	173	1.6
Jefferson Elementary	15	158	1.4
Hayward Unified	16	153	1.4

*Source: "DATA: BICAL Report No. 84-7E." Sacramento: California State Department of Education, Bilingual Education Office, 1984.

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of LEP Students Who Speak Pilipino, 1984 (continued)

Name of school district	*Rank by number of LEP (Pilipino) students*	*LEP (Pilipino) enrollment (spring, 1984)*	*LEP (Pilipino) students as a percentage of state LEP (Pilipino) students*
Chula Vista City Elementary	17	140	1.3
Salinas Union High	18	139	1.3
Milpitas Unified	19	134	1.2
Alum Rock Union Elementary	20	127	1.2
Rowland Unified	21	124	1.1
South San Francisco Unified	22	117	1.1
Santa Clara Unified	23	117	1.1
Richmond Unified	24	113	1.0
Stockton City Unified	25	108	1.0
Monterey Peninsula Unified	26	106	1.0

Appendix B

Educational Resources

Resource Centers

Asian American Studies
Department of Applied
Behavioral Sciences
University of California, Davis
Davis, CA 95616
(916) 752-3625

Asian Education Project
University of California,
Los Angeles
3232 Campbell Hall
Los Angeles, CA 90024
(213) 825-5178

California Institute for
Asian Studies
3494 21st St.
San Francisco, CA 94110
(415) 648-1489

Knowledge of English Yields
Success (KEYS) Project
Los Angeles Unified School
District
450 North Grand Ave.
Room G-290
Los Angeles, CA 90012
(213) 625-6743

National Hispanic University
255 East 14th St.
Oakland, CA 94606
(415) 451-0511

Stanford Institute for
Intercultural Communication
P.O. Box AD
Stanford, CA 94305
(415) 497-4921

Sources of Pilipino Materials

Alemar's America Inc.
34 W. 32nd St.
New York, NY 10001
(212) 563-4610

ARC Associates, Inc.
310 Eighth St., No. 220
Oakland, CA 94607
(415) 834-9455

Asian American Studies
Central, Inc.
Visual Communications
313 South San Pedro St.
Los Angeles, CA 90013
(213) 680-4462

Asia Book Corporation
of America
94-41, 218 St.
Queens, New York, NY 11428

Cellar Book Shop
1441 Stockton St.
San Francisco, CA 94133
(415) 421-4219

Children's Book Press
1461 Ninth Ave.
San Francisco, CA 94122
(415) 664-8500

Multifunction Support Center
Title VII
Calfiornia State University,
Los Angeles
5151 State University Dr.
Los Angeles, CA 90032
(213) 224-3676

Everybody's Bookstore
17 Brenham Pl.
San Francisco, CA 94108
(415) 781-4989

Iaconi Book Imports
300 Pennsylvania
San Francisco, CA 94107
(415) 285-7393

Imported Books
P.O. Box 4414
2025 W. Clarendon St.
Dallas, TX 75208
(214) 941-6497

Multicultural Resources
Box 2945
Stanford, CA 94305
(415) 493-6729

Multilingual Multicultural Center
Stockton Unified School District
55 West Flora St.
Stockton, CA
(209) 944-4297

National Bookstore, Inc.
701 Rizal Ave.
Cor. Soler
Manila, Philippines
49-43-06

National Hispanic University
225 E. Fourteenth St.
Oakland, CA 94606
(415) 451-0511

Orbis Publications
1105 Lantana Dr.
Los Angeles, CA 90042
(213) 258-6348

Philippine Expressions Corporation
1033 Hilgard Ave., Ste. 417
Los Angeles, CA 90024
(213) 208-1890

San Francisco Unified School District
ESEA Title VII Program
Filipino Component
300 Seneca St.
San Francisco, CA 94112
(415) 239-0902

University of Hawaii Press
2840 Holowulu St.
Honolulu, HI 96822

Filipino Teacher Training Agencies

San Diego State University
Multicultural Education Department
College of Education
San Diego, CA 92182
(619) 265-5155

University of San Francisco
Multicultural Program
Ignatian Heights
San Francisco, CA 94117
(415) 666-6878

University of the Pacific
School of Education
Stockton, CA 95211
(209) 946-2334

Appendix C

Community Organizations and Media Services

Asian American Communities for Education
2012 Pine St.
San Francisco, CA 94115
(415) 563-8052

Asian Americans for Community Involvement, Inc.
3065 Middlefield Rd.
Suite 3
Palo Alto, CA 94306
(415) 494-8327

Asian, Inc.
1610 Bush St.
San Francisco, CA 94109
(415) 928-5910

Asian Manpower Services, Inc.
477 15th St.
Oakland, CA 94612
(415) 451-4772

Asian/Pacific Counseling and Training Center
3407 West Sixth St.
Room 510
Los Angeles, CA 90020
(213) 382-7311

Asians for Job Opportunities in Berkeley, Inc.
1617 University Ave.
Berkeley, CA 94703
(415) 548-6700

Associated Filipino Organization
42 Howard St.
Stockton, CA 95206

Association of Pilipino-American Educators
8524 Yarmouth Dr.
Stockton, CA 95209

Caballeros de Dimasalang
16465 Cambridge Dr.
Stockton, CA 95330

Center for the Study of Parent Involvement
693 Mission St.
Fifth Floor
San Francisco, CA 94105
(415) 495-7283

Congress of Filipino American Citizens
311 E. Main St.
Stockton, CA 95202

Economic Opportunity Council
Filipino Division
1173 Mission St.
San Francisco, CA 94103
(415) 771-7100

Fil-Am Employment and Training Center
335 Valencia
San Francisco, CA 94103
(415) 626-1608

Fil-Am Senior Citizens
114 E. 14th St.
Stockton, CA 95206

Filipino American Coordinating Conference Manpower Training
2741 Fruitridge Road
Sacramento, CA 95820
(916) 452-3622

Filipino Chamber of Commerce
469 Murillo Dr.
Stockton, CA 95207

Filipino Cultural and
Educational Society
3001 Canal Dr.
Stockton, CA 95204

Filipino Multi-Service Center
6 West Main St.
Suite J
Stockton, CA 95202

Pacific Asian Coalition (PAC)
1366 10th Ave.
San Francisco, CA 94122
(415) 665-6006

Pacific Asian Consortium
in Employment (PACE)
1851 South Westmoreland Ave.
Los Angeles, CA 90006
(213) 748-8431

Pilipino Service Center
1515 The Alameda No. 104
San Jose, CA 95126
(408) 998-0636

Union of Pan Asian
Communities of San Diego
County, Inc.
2459 Market St.
San Diego, CA 95102
(619) 232-6454

United Filipinos of Alameda
737 Eagle Ave.
Alameda, CA 94501
(415) 522-6420

West Bay Pilipino Multi-
Service Corporation
944 Market St.
Room 709
San Francisco, CA 94102
(415) 391-5800

Filipino Language Newspapers

Balitaan
1300 West Olympic Blvd.
No. 303
Los Angeles, CA 90015

The Filipino-American
2471 Fruitridge Rd.
Sacramento, CA 95820

The Mabuhay Republic
833 Market St.
Suite 705
San Francisco, CA 94103

Philippine News
P.O. Box 2767
149 South Spruce Ave.
South San Francisco, CA 94080

Filipino Language Radio and Television Programs

"Asian Pacific News"
Station KEST (AM 1450)
San Francisco, CA

"The Manila Magazine"
KEMO-TV (Channel 20)
San Francisco, CA

86

Appendix D

Filipino Bilingual Education Programs in California, 1984

Local educational agency	*Project director*	*Grade level*	*Total students served (LEP students)*
ABC Unified School District 16700 Norwalk Blvd. Cerritos, CA 90701	Lilia Stapleton (213) 926-5566 Ext. 2192	7-12	298 (298)
La Mesa-Spring Valley 4750 Date Ave. La Mesa, CA 92041	Dolly Casco (619) 469-6171 Ext. 394	7-8	129 (129)
Los Angeles Unified School District 450 N. Grand Ave. Los Angeles, CA 90012	Jessie Franco (213) 625-6743	K-6	85,228 (52,025)
Rowland Unified School District 1830 S. Nogales St. Rowland Heights, CA 91748	Kay C. Knepp	K-8	91 (91)
San Francisco Unified School District 300-Seneca Ave. San Francisco, CA 94112	Ligaya Avenida (415) 239-0161	K-5	2,731 (2,180)
Office of the San Mateo County Superintendent of Schools 333 Main St. Redwood City, CA 94063	Tony Gonzales (415) 363-3400	K-3 6-12	1,572 (1,136)
Stockton Unified School District 701 N. Madison St. Stockton, CA 95204	Charles Hebert (209) 944-4120	K-6	523 (523)
Vallejo City Unified School District 321 Wallace Ave. Vallejo, CA 94590	Thomas Bye (707) 553-1237	7-12	230 (196)

Appendix E
Pilipino Reading Lesson

Aralin 1

a	e	i	o	u
A	E	I	O	U

Pagsasanay

Basahin:

a	e	i	o	u
A	E	I	O	U
e	i	o	u	a
E	I	O	U	A
i	o	u	a	e
I	O	U	A	E
o	u	a	e	i
O	U	A	E	I
u	a	e	i	o
U	A	E	I	O

Aralin 2

I. -b-

a	e	i	o	u
ba	be	bi	bo	bu

II.

1. a-bá	abá	6. bu-ô	buô
2. a-bó	abó	7. bi-bi	bibi
3. i-bá	ibá	8. ba-bà	babà
4. u-bó	ubó	9. ba-ba-e	babae
5. ba-o	bao	10. i-ba-bâ	ibabâ

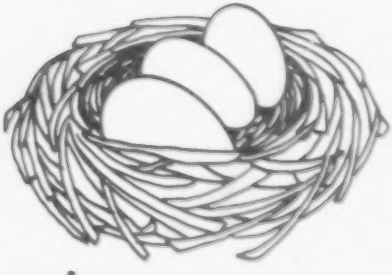
Source: *Mga Unang Hakbang sa Pagbasa* by L. Salvador, National Bookstore, Inc., Manila, 1959. Used with permission.

Appendix F

ABAKADA Handwriting Exercise

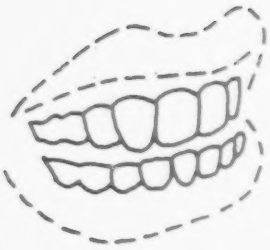
long

I i



tlog

sa



Ng

ngipin

Ng

ng

Rosita

ngalan

ngiti

Appendix G
Sample Objectives for Writing in Pilipino

I. KASANAYAN SA PAGSULAT

A. Nagkakaroon ng sapat na kasanayan sa pagsulat

1. Nasasanay ang bisig at kamay sa wastong galaw sa pagsulat
2. Naisusulat nang wasto ang mga titik ng abakada
3. Naisusulat nang wasto ang sariling pangalan
4. Nagagamit nang wasto ang malaking titik sa pagsulat
   a. Unang titik ng pangalan
   b. Simula ng isang pangungusap
   c. Pantanging ngalan ng bagay, tirahan, paaralan at pook
   d. Ngalan ng mga araw at ng mga buwan
   e. Mga pantawag (Hal.: Ginang, Ginoo atb.)
5. Nagagamit nang wasto ang mga bantas
   a. tuldok — sa hulihan ng pangungusap/daglat (Hal.: Bb., Gng., Ako't ikaw, atb.)
   b. pananong — sa hulihan ng isang tanong
6. Nakasisipi ng mga huwaran (Hal.: salitang ngalan, talaan at pangungusap)
7. Nakasusulat ng idinidikta (Hal.: pangngalan, mga salitang nagsasaad ng kilos, mga salitang nagbibigay-katangian, atb.)

II. KASANAYAN SA PAGSULAT

A. Nagkakaroon ng sapat na kasanayan sa pagsulat

1. Naisusulat nang wasto ang mga titik ng abakada
2. Naisusulat nang wasto ang mga bagay na may kinalaman sa sarili
3. Nagagamit nang wasto ang malaking titik sa pagsulat
   a. Unang titik ng pangalan
   b. Simula ng isang pangungusap
   c. Pantanging ngalan ng bagay, tirahan, paaralan, pook, atb.
   d. Ngalan ng mga araw, ng mga buwan at ng mga pista
   e. Mga Pantawag (Hal.: Ginoo, Ginang, atb.)
   f. Una at mahahalagang salita sa pamagat
4. Nagagamit nang wasto ang mga bantas
   a. *tuldok* — hulihan ng pangungusap at sa daglat (Hal.: Bb., Gng.. atb.)
   b. *pananong* — sa hulihan ng isang tanong

c. *kuwit* — mga salita sa serye, petsa, bahagi ng liham tulad ng pamuhatan, bating panimula at bating pangwakas

B. Mga Gawaing Pasulat

1. Nakasisipi ng mga huwaran (Hal.: talaan at pangungusap)
2. Nakasisipi ng isang talataan nang may karampatang pasok at palugit
3. Nakasisipi sa wastong ayos o porma ng pagsulat ng isang liham o kalatas
4. Nakasusulat ng idinidikta
   a. Mga pangngalan / mga salitang naglalarawan
   b. Talaan (mga kagamitan sa paaralan, tahanan, bibilhin sa palengke, atb.)
   c. Mga payak na pangungusap (panuto at tanong)
5. Nakasusulat ng sariling pangungusap (panuto, patanong, pahulaan)
6. Nakasusulat ng isang paglalarawan ng bagay
7. Nakabubuo ng isang payak na liham pangkaibigan
   a. Nakakikilala ng iba't ibang bahagi ng liham

III. KASANAYAN SA PAGSULAT

A. Nagkakaroon ng sapat na kasanayan sa paggamit ng mga sangkap sa pagsulat

1. Naisusulat nang wasto ang mga titik ng abakada
2. Nagagamit nang wasto ang malaking titik sa pagsulat
   a. Unang titik ng pangalan
   b. Simula ng isang pangungusap
   c. Pantanging ngalan ng tao, pook, bagay
   d. Ngalan ng mga araw sa isang linggo, ng mga buwan at ng mga pista
   e. Mga pantawag
   f. Una at mahahalagang salita sa pamagat
   g. Bating panimula at bating pangwakas ng liham
   h. Unang salita sa isang balangkas
3. Nagagamit nang wasto ang mga bantas
   a. *Tuldok* — sa hulihan ng pangungusap at sa daglat (Hal.: Gng., Gg., atb.)
   b. *Pananong* — sa hulihan ng isang tanong
   c. *Kuwit* — Mga salita sa serye, petsa, bahagi ng liham, Po, opo, hindi, oo sa isang usapan
   d. *Padamdam* — sa hulihan ng pangungusap na padamdam
   e. *Gitling* — salitang inuulit, paghahati ng salita

B. Nagkakaroon ng sapat na kasanayan sa pagsulat

1. Nakasisipi nang wasto ng mga huwaran (Hal.: Talaan, talataan, liham o kalatas)

2. Nakasusulat ng idinidikta (Hal.: Pangungusap, panuto, payak na patalastas)
3. Nakasusulat ng sariling pangungusap, panuto, tanong, pahulaan, patalastas
4. Nakasusulat at nakalilikha ng sariling payak na tugma
5. Nakasusulat ng isang talataan nang may karampatang pasok at palugit
   a. Isang paglalarawan ng mga bagay
   b. Maayos na ulat
   c. Maikling balita
6. Nakasusulat ng liham pangkaibigan
   a. Nakikilala ang mga bahagi ng liham
   b. Nakapagbibigay ng halimbawa ng iba't ibang bahagi ng liham
   c. Nakabubuo ng isang katawan ng liham
   d. Naisusulat sa wastong lugar ang mga bahagi ng liham
7. Nakikilala ang iba't ibang uri ng liham
   a. Liham Pangkaibigan
      (1) Paanyaya
      (2) Pakikiramay
      (3) Pasasalamat
      (4) Pagbabalita
   b. Liham Pangkalakal

Source: The Elementary Learning Continuum, Bureau of Elementary Education, Department of Education and Culture, Manila, Philippines, 1977.

Appendix H
Sample Pages from a Kartilya Book

Ang ay

1. Ang amá ko ay mabuti.
2. Akó ay batà.
3. Ang tutà ay matabâ.
4. Ang kabibi ay buô.
5. Ang babae ay umubó.
6. Ang babae ay ate ko.

Aralin 6

I. -n-

a	e	i	o	u
na	ne	ni	no	nu
ma	me	mi	mo	mu
ta	te	ti	to	tu
ka	ke	ki	ko	ku

II.

1. A-na Ana
2. i-ná inà
3. no-ó noó
4. u-na una
5. Ne-na Nena
6. Bi-nò Binò
7. ma-nî manî
8. ni-tó nitó
9. a-ni-no anino
10. bi-na-tà binatà
11. ba-tutà batutà
12. ka-ni-na kanina
13. bi-na-ba-é binabaé
14. bi-ni-bi-ni binibini

Pagsasanay

I. Alín ang magkabagay?

iná at	Ana
binibini at	matá
noó at	amá
manî at	mababà
Nene at	binatà
matabâ at	ubi

Source: *Mga Unang Hakbang sa Pagbasa* by L. Salvador, National Bookstore, Inc., Manila, 1959. Used with permission.

II. Basahing tahimik ang mga sumusunód:
Pagkatapós ay isalaysáy.

Si Aling Mang

Si Aling Nena ay iná.
Si Mang Binò ay amá.
Si Aling Nena ay matabâ.
Si Mang Binò ay matabâ.
Ang iná at amá ay matatabâ.
Si Aling Nena ay mabuti
Si Mang Binò ay mabuti.
Mababuti ang iná at amá.

Publications Available from the Department of Education

This publication is one of over 600 that are available from the California State Department of Education. Some of the more recent publications or those most widely used are the following:

Academic Honesty (1986)	$2.50
Administration of Maintenance and Operations in California School Districts (1986)	6.75
Apprenticeship and the Blue Collar System: Putting Women on the Right Track (1982)	10.00
Basic Principles for the Education of Language-Minority Students: An Overview (1983)	2.00
Bilingual-Crosscultural Teacher Aides: A Resource Guide (1984)	3.50
Bilingual Program, Policy, and Assessment Issues (1980)	3.25
Boating the Right Way (1985)	4.00
California Private School Directory	9.00
California Public School Directory	14.00
California Schools . . . Moving Up: Annual Status Report, 1985 (1986)	3.00
Career Vocational Assessment of Secondary Students with Exceptional Needs (1983)	4.00
College Core Curriculum: University and College Opportunities Program Guide (1983)	2.25
Computer Applications Planning (1985)	5.00
Computers in Education: Goals and Content (1985)	2.50
Educational Software Preview Guide (1986)	2.00
Elementary School Program Quality Criteria (1985)	3.25
Food Service Program Monthly Inventory Record (1985)	6.00
Guide for Vision Screening in California Public Schools (1984)	2.50
Handbook for Conducting an Elementary Program Review (1985)	4.50
Handbook for Conducting a Secondary Program Review (1985)	4.50
Handbook for Planning an Effective Foreign Language Program (1985)	3.50
Handbook for Planning an Effective Mathematics Program (1982)	2.00
Handbook for Planning an Effective Reading Program (1983)	1.50
Handbook for Planning an Effective Writing Program (1986)	2.50
Handbook for Teaching Cantonese-Speaking Students (1984)	4.50
Handbook for Teaching Pilipino-Speaking Students (1986)	4.50
Handbook for Teaching Portuguese-Speaking Students (1983)	4.50
Handbook on California Education for Language Minority Parents—Chinese: English Edition (1985)	3.25*
History—Social Science Framework for California Public Schools (1981)	2.25
Improving the Attractiveness of the K—12 Teaching Profession in California (1983)	3.25
Improving the Human Environment of Schools: Facilitation (1984)	5.50
Improving Writing in California Schools: Problems and Solutions (1983)	2.00
Individual Learning Programs for Limited-English-Proficient Students (1984)	3.50
Instructional Patterns: Curriculum for Parenthood Education (1985)	12.00
Manual of First-Aid Practices for School Bus Drivers (1983)	1.75
Martin Luther King, Jr., 1929—1968 (1983)	3.25
Mathematics Framework for California Public Schools (1985)	3.00
Model Curriculum Standards: Grades Nine Through Twelve (1985)	5.50

*The following editions are also available, at the same price: Armenian/English, Cambodian/English, Hmong/English, Korean/English, Laotian/English, Spanish/English, and Vietnamese/English.

96

Nutrition Education—Choose Well, Be Well: A Curriculum Guide for Junior High School (1984)	8.00
Nutrition Education—Choose Well, Be Well: A Curriculum Guide for High School (1984)	8.00
Nutrition Education—Choose Well, Be Well: A Curriculum Guide for Preschool and Kindergarten (1982)	8.00
Nutrition Education—Choose Well, Be Well: A Curriculum Guide for the Primary Grades (1982)	8.00
Nutrition Education—Choose Well, Be Well: A Curriculum Guide for the Upper Elementary Grades (1982)	8.00
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Nutrition Education—Choose Well, Be Well: A Resource Manual for Preschool, Kindergarten and Elementary Teachers (1982)	2.25
Nutrition Education—Choose Well, Be Well: A Resource Manual for Secondary Teachers (1982)	2.25
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Standards for Scoliosis Screening in California Public Schools (1985)	2.50
Studies on Immersion Education: A Collection for U.S. Educators (1984)	5.00
Trash Monster Environmental Education Kit (for grade six)	23.00
University and College Opportunities Handbook (1984)	3.25
Visual and Performing Arts Framework for California Public Schools (1982)	3.25
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Wizard of Waste Environmental Education Kit (for grade three)	20.00
Work Permit Handbook (1985)	6.00
Young and Old Together: A Resource Directory of Intergenerational Resources (1985)	3.00

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A list of approximately 140 diskettes and accompanying manuals, available to members of the California Computing Consortium, may also be obtained by writing to the same address.

82-127 (03-0481) 77327-300 5-86 3M